THE

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For JUNE 1801.

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EDINBURGH

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For JAMES WATSON, No 57. South Bridge Street.

New Patent granted to Dr Anderſon for a Hot Houſe.

The Patentee firſt points out the defects in the preſent conſtruction of theſe houſes, owing to which the heat of the ſun is not turned to all the advantage of which it is capable. In the houſes now in uſe, the roof-glaſſes of hot-houſes are almoſt univerſally laid into the frames, by lapping one pane over the other, leaving an open ſpace between each pane, through which the air may freely paſs and repaſs, whilſt the panes in front are cloſely puttied all round. It is this communication with the open air at the *upper part* of the houſe, that is its chief defect, for, as the effect of heat upon any quantity of air (and indeed on fluids in general) is to make the maſs of air thus heated to riſe in a body to the upper part of the veſſel in which the air is contained; ſo it is in a hot-houſe. As ſoon as the ſun's rays penetrate through the glaſſes, the air within the houſe becomes heated, and, riſing to the top of the houſe, it paſſes out into the open air, and continues to do ſo for ſeveral hours before the lower part of the houſe is ſenſibly warmed. Thus the effect of the morning ſun is loſt for ſome hours, and in the evening, when the warm air within the houſe begins to cool, and contract in bulk, the cold air from without finds it way through the top glaſſes, and cools the houſe in the moſt expeditious manner poſſible. To remedy theſe inconveniences Dr Anderſon propoſes the following conſtruction for houſes to force vines, or ſuch as require a ſimilar temperature. The houſe is to be made of the uſual dimenſions, but with a glaſs roof entirely flat; and, as it never requires to be opened, all the ſeams and junctures muſt be cloſely paſted up. Over this flat roof another ſloping roof is to be thrown, which laſt alſo is better made of glaſs, but may be built of ſlate. A chamber, in the form of a common garret, is thus made above the hot-houſe, which is to ſerve as a reſervoir for the heated air. The upper chamber has communication with the open air only at its lower part, that is, juſt over the roof of the lower houſe. It communicates with the lower houſe by a pipe, which paſſes through the glaſs-roof of this houſe, and is prolonged nearly to the ground below, and to the top of the upper chamber above. By this conſtruction, as ſoon as the morning-ſun begins to warm the air of the lower houſe, it riſes to the roof, and, not finding any opening there, it accumulates in that part, whilſt the cool air is forced through the pipe into the upper chamber. Thus the ſtratum of warmer air is conſtantly increaſing downwards from the roof till the whole of the lower houſe is warmed. After this the air aſcends warm through the communicating pipe into the upper chamber, or reſervoir for heated air; and here too, as below, it aſcends to the top of the cieling, forcing out the cooler air contained in the upper chamber, which paſſes away through the openings which are left above the floor of this chamber or the roof of the lower room.

During the whole of this heating proceſs, the vines which are trained all along under the glaſs roof of the lower chamber are immerſed in warm air on every ſide. In the evening, when the ſun is off, the warm air contracts by cooling, and the outer air ruſhes in through the only communication which the houſe has without; that is, through the openings juſt over the glaſs-roof into the upper chamber. As this outer cold air is heavier than any part of the air within either chamber, it can only gradually enter in proportion as the inner recedes, and the current through the chambers is exactly reverſed, whilſt the lower chamber receives all the ſtore of heated air from the reſervoir before the cooler air can reach it, and the roof of the lower room on which the vines are trained, muſt be the laſt place in the whole building that can be cooled. The Doctor ſuggeſts, that the upper houſe might ſerve as a hot-houſe of inferior rank, and particularly well for a green-houſe.

ADAM SMITH L.L.D.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF ADAM SMITH, L. L. D.

And ſome account of his Writings.

With an Engraving.*

ADAM Smith, author of the Inquiry into the nature and cauſes of the Wealth of Nations, was the ſon of Adam Smith, comptroller of the cuſtoms at Kirkaldy, and of Margaret Douglas, daughter of Mr Douglas of Strathenry. He was the only child of the marriage, and was born at Kirkaldy on the 5th of June 1723, a few months after the death of his father.

His conſtitution during infancy was infirm and ſickly, and required all the tender ſolicitude of his ſurviving parent. She was blamed for treating him with an unlimited indulgence; but it produced no unfavourable effect on his temper or his diſpoſitions:—and he enjoyed the rare ſatisfaction of being able to repay her affection, by every attention that filial gratitude could dictate, during the long period of ſixty years.

The ſchool of Kirkaldy, where Mr Smith received the firſt rudiments of his education, was then taught by Mr David Miller, a teacher, in his day, of conſiderable reputation, and whoſe name deſerves to be recorded, on account of the eminent men whom that very obſcure ſeminary produced while under his direction. Mr Oſwald of Dunnikeir, whoſe profound knowledge of finances raiſed him afterwards to important employments in the State, and to a diſtinguiſhed rank as a parliamentary ſpeaker; his brother, Dr John Oſwald, afterwards Biſhop of Raphoe; and Dr John Dryſdale, whoſe talents and worth are well known, were among the number of Mr Smith's contemporaries.

From the grammar-ſchool of Kirkaldy, he was ſent, in 1737, to the Univerſity of Glaſgow, where he remained till 1740, when he went to Baliol College, Oxford.

Although while at the Univerſity of Glaſgow, Natural Philoſophy and Mathematics were his favourite purſuits; yet the ſtudy of human nature in all its branches, more particularly of the political hiſtory of mankind opened a boundleſs field to his curioſity and ambition; and while it afforded ſcope to all the various powers of his verſatile and comprehenſive genius, gratified his ruling paſſion, of con-

* There was never, ſo far as we have been able to diſcover, a portrait of Dr Smith. The only likeneſs taken of him was by Mr Taſſie, from which the preſent engraving is made. In our volume for 1796, we gave an engraving from this medallion, but it was not executed to our mind. We truſt our ſubſcribers, therefore, will juſtify our attempt to give a more correct, and we think, ſtriking likeneſs. In this account, we have dwelt chiefly on his writings, referring our readers for other particulars, to our volume for 1796, and to the Biographical accounts by Profeſſor Stewart, and Mr Smellie.

tributing to the happineſs and the improvement of ſociety. To this ſtudy, diverſified at his leiſure hours by the leſs ſevere occupations of polite literature, he ſeems to have devoted himſelf almoſt entirely from the time of his removal to Oxford; but he ſtill retained, and retained even in advanced years, a recollection of his early acquiſitions, which not only added to the ſplendour of his converſation, but enabled him to exemplify ſome of his favourite theories concerning the natural progreſs of the mind in the inveſtigation of truth, by the hiſtory of thoſe ſciences in which the connection and ſucceſſion of diſcoveries may be traced with the greateſt advantage. The lectures of the profound and eloquent Dr Hutcheſon, which he had attended previous to his departure from Glaſgow, and of which he always ſpoke in terms of the warmeſt admiration, had, it may be reaſonably preſumed, a conſiderable effect in directing his talents to their proper objects.

It was probably alſo at this period of his life, that he cultivated with the greateſt care the ſtudy of languages. The knowledge he poſſeſſed of theſe, both ancient and modern, was uncommonly extenſive and accurate; and, in him, was ſubſervient, not to a vain parade of taſteleſs erudition, but to a familiar acquaintance with every thing that could illuſtrate the inſtitutions, the manners and the ideas of different ages and nations.

After a reſidence at Oxford of ſeven years, he returned to Kirkaldy, and lived two years with his mother; engaged in ſtudy, but without any fixed plan for his future life.

In the year 1748, he fixed his reſidence at Edinburgh, and during that and the following years, read lectures on rhetoric and belles lettres, under the patronage of Lord Kames. About this time, too, he contracted a very intimate friendſhip, which continued, without interruption, till his death, with Mr Alexander Wedderburn, now Earl of Roſslyn, and with Mr William Johnſtone, now Sir W. Pulteney.

At what particular period his acquaintance with Mr David Hume commenced, does not appear.

In 1751, he was elected Profeſſor of Logic in the Univerſity of Glaſgow; and, the year following, he was removed to the Profeſſorſhip of Moral Philoſophy in the ſame Univerſity, upon the death of Mr Thomas Craigie, the immediate ſucceſſor of Dr Hutcheſon. In this ſituation, he remained thirteen years; a period he uſed frequently to look back to, as the moſt uſeful and happy of his life. It was indeed a ſituation in which he was eminently fitted to excel, and in which the daily labours of his profeſſion were conſtantly recalling his attention to his favourite purſuits, and familiariſing his mind to thoſe important ſpeculations he was afterwards to communicate to the world. In this view, though it afforded, in the mean time, but a very narrow ſcene for his ambition, it was probably inſtrumental, in no inconſiderable degree, to the future eminence of his literary character.

Of Mr Smith's lectures while a Profeſſor at Glaſgow, no part has been preſerved, excepting what he himſelf publiſhed in the Theory of Moral Sentiments, and in the Wealth of Nations.

There was no ſituation in which the abilities of Mr Smith appeared to greater advantage than as a profeſſor. In delivering his lectures, he truſted almoſt entirely to extemporary elocution. His manner, though not graceful, was plain and unaffected; as he ſeemed to be always

ways intereſted in the ſubject, he never failed to intereſt his hearers. Each diſcourſe conſiſted commonly of ſeveral diſtinct propoſitions, which he ſucceſſively endeavoured to prove and illuſtrate. Theſe propoſitions, when announced in general terms, had, from their extent, not unfrequently ſomething of the air of paradox. In his attempts to explain them, he often appeared, at firſt, not to be ſufficiently poſſeſſed of the ſubject, and ſpoke with ſome heſitation. As he advanced, however, the matter ſeemed to crowd upon him, his manner became warm and animated, and his expreſſion eaſy and fluent.

While Mr Smith was thus diſtinguiſhing himſelf by his zeal and ability as a public teacher, he was gradually laying the foundation of a more extenſive reputation, by preparing for the preſs his ſyſtem of morals. The firſt edition of this work appeared in 1759, under the title of "The Theory of Moral Sentiments."

It underwent ſix editions before the author's death, which happened in the month of July 1790. It is a fundamental principle of Mr Smith's Theory, that the actions of other men are the primary objects of our moral perceptions; and that the judgments we form with regard to our own conduct are only applications to ourſelves of theſe opinions we have previously entertained concerning the conduct of others. He divides his work into two parts. The firſt contains an explanation how we learn to judge concerning the behaviour of thoſe with whom we aſſociate; and the laſt, in what manner we acquire a ſenſe of duty by the application of theſe judgments to ourſelves. With reſpect to our own conduct, and that of others, our moral judgments contain two ſeparate perceptions:—

I. The perception of right and of wrong. II. The perception of propriety or impropriety in the actions of other perſons. For the word *rectitude*, ſo generally employed by moraliſts, Mr Smith ſubſtitutes the term *propriety*. His principles and doctrines on this ſubject, he comprehends in the ſubſequent propoſitions.

I. From our own experience, ſolely, we are enabled to acquire any ideas of what is occupying the mind of another perſon. By ſuppoſing ourſelves in the ſame ſituation in which any perſon is placed, and, of courſe, thinking how we ſhould be affected in the ſame or ſimilar circumſtances, is the only mode we can employ of conceiving ſuch ideas. From this imaginary mutation of place with other men, that intereſt we take in their good or bad fortunes is chiefly derived. Mr Smith elucidates this poſition by well-known facts. "When we ſee a ſtroke aimed," he remarks, "and juſt ready to fall upon the leg or arm of another perſon, we naturally ſhrink and draw back our own leg or our own arm; and when it does fall, we feel it in ſome meaſure, and are hurt by it as well as the ſufferer. The mob, when they are gazing at a dancer on the ſlack rope, naturally writhe and twiſt and balance their own bodies, as they ſee him do, and as they feel that they themſelves muſt do if in his ſituation." Mr Smith farther remarks, that the ſame thing happens when our attention is excited to the condition of our neighbour. "Whatever is the paſſion which ariſes from any object in the perſon principally concerned, an analogous emotion ſprings up, at the thought of his ſituation, in the breaſt of every attentive ſpectator. In every paſſion of which the mind of man is ſuſceptible, the emotions of the by-ſtand-

er always correſpond to what, by bringing the caſe home to himſelf, he imagines ſhould be the ſentiments of the ſufferer."

This principle of human nature Mr Smith diſtinguiſhes by the epithets of *ſympathy* or *fellow-feeling*.

II. Sympathy between different perſons is always agreeable to both. When in ſituations which excite particular paſſions, it is attended with a peculiar pleaſure to perceive that the ſpectators are, by ſympathy affected in the ſame manner with ourſelves.

III. When a ſpectator of another man's ſituation feels himſelf affected in the ſame manner as the principal, he approves of the paſſion or affection of that perſon as juſt and proper. Mr Smith remarks, that the exceptions that may be made to this obſervation are only apparent and by no means ſolid. "A ſtranger, for example," ſays he, "paſſes by us in the ſtreet with all the marks of the deepeſt affliction; and we are immediately told, that he has juſt received the news of the death of his father. It is impoſſible that in this caſe we ſhould not approve of his grief; yet it may often happen, without any defect on our part, that, ſo far from entering into the violence of his ſorrow, we ſhould ſcarce conceive the firſt movements of concern upon his account. We have learned, however, from experience, that ſuch a misfortune naturally excites ſuch a degree of ſorrow; and we know that, if we took time to examine his ſituation fully and in all its parts, we ſhould, without doubt, moſt ſincerely ſympathize with him. It is upon the conſciouſneſs of this conditional ſympathy that our approbation of his ſorrow is founded, even in thoſe caſes in which that ſympathy does not actually take place; and the general rules derived from our preceding experience of what our ſentiments would commonly correſpond with, correct upon this, as upon many other occaſions, the impropriety of our preſent emotions."

Hence, by the propriety of any paſſion, or affection, exhibited by another perſon, we are to underſtand its ſuitableneſs to the object by which it is excited. We can judge of this ſuitableneſs ſolely by the coincidence of the affection with that which we feel, when we conceive ourſelves to be placed in the ſame circumſtances; and, upon the perception of this coincidence, the ſentiment of *moral approbation* is founded.

IV. Sympathetic affections, though they naturally ariſe in the mind of a ſpectator, bear a ſmall proportion only, in degree of vivacity, to what is felt by the perſon himſelf. To procure, therefore, the pleaſure of mutual ſympathy, the ſpectator is ſtimulated by nature to raiſe his emotion, as nearly as he can, to the ſame height as the object itſelf would really produce. On the other hand, ſhe prompts the perſon whoſe paſſion this object has excited, to bring it down to a level with that of the ſpectator.

V. Different ſpecies of virtues are founded upon theſe two mutual efforts. The effort of the ſpectator to partake of the feelings of the perſon principally concerned, and to raiſe his ſympathetic emotions to the ſame degree as thoſe of the actor, gives riſe to the mild and amiable virtues. Upon the efforts of the principal to depreſs his own emotions, with a view to make them correſpond with thoſe of the ſpectator, are founded the great and reſpectable virtues, as thoſe of humility, of ſelf-government, and of that command of the paſſions which ſubjects all our determi-

terminations to what the dignity, the honour, and the propriety of our conduct, in the complicated affairs of life, require. In farther illuſtration of this ſubject, Mr Smith treats of the degrees of the different paſſions which are conſiſtent with propriety; and ſhows, that it is always indecent or decent to expreſs a paſſion ſtrongly, according as men are diſpoſed or not diſpoſed to give it their ſympathy. For example, it is improper to expreſs any paſſions which originate from a particular condition of the body: becauſe our neighbour, who is not in the ſame condition, cannot be ſuppoſed to ſympathize with them. To cry out with bodily pain is unbecoming; becauſe the ſympathy of the ſpectator is greatly diſproportioned to the acuteneſs of the ſufferer's feelings.

When indulging the unſocial, rather hoſtile, paſſions of hatred and reſentment, the ſpectators ſympathy is divided between the perſon who feels the paſſion, and the perſon who is the object of it. "We are concerned for both, and our fear for what the one may ſuffer, damps our reſentment for what the other has ſuffered." From this circumſtance ariſe that imperfect manner by which we ſympathize with ſuch paſſions, and, when under their influence, the propriety of moderating their expreſſion to a greater degree than any other emotions require. In all the ſocial and benevolent affections, the reverſe takes place. The ſpectator's ſympathy with the perſon who feels them, coincides with the intereſt he takes in the perſon who is the object of them. This redoubled ſympathy makes theſe affections peculiarly agreeable and reſpectable.

Mr Smith next inquires how far the judgments of men, concerning the propriety of human actions, are liable to be affected by the proſperous or adverſe circumſtances of the agent. On this ſubject he endeavours to ſhew, that, when no envy exiſts, our propenſity to ſympathize with joy is much ſtronger than with that of ſorrow; and, of courſe, that we more readily receive the approbation of mankind when we are in proſperity than when we are in adverſity. He derives the origin of ambition, or the deſire of ſuperior rank, from the ſame principle. The great object of ambition is, to attain that degree of pre-eminence over his countrymen or fellow citizens, which places him in a conſpicuous view, and, beſtows on him a dominion over the affections of other men.

After finiſhing the analyſis of our perception of propriety and impropriety, Mr Smith proceeds to examine our ſenſe of merit and demerit, which he derives from the ſame ſource, not from our own characters, but from the characters of thoſe with whom we have intercourſe. The terms *propriety* and *impropriety*, as formerly remarked, are meant to expreſs the ſuitableneſs or unſuitableneſs of the affection to the *cauſe* by which it is excited. The words *merit* and *demerit* always refer to the *effect* which the affection has a tendency to produce. When the tendency of any affection is beneficial, the agent appears to be an object of reward; when it has an oppoſite tendency, he appears to be deſerving of puniſhment. Gratitude and reſentment are the chief principles in human nature which ſtimulate us to reward and to puniſh. It muſt, however, be remarked, that we do not altogether ſympathize with the gratitude of one man to another, ſolely becauſe the latter has been the cauſe of the former's good fortune, or ſucceſs, in any deſirable object, unleſs that cauſe

has proceeded from motives of which we entirely approve. The ſame remark is applicable to our ſenſe of demerit. Mr Smith infers, from theſe principles, that the only actions which appear to merit reward, are thoſe which have a beneficial tendency, and, at the ſame time, derive their origin from benevolent motives; and the only actions which ſeem to deſerve puniſhment are thoſe of a hurtful tendency, and proceed from improper or ſiniſter motives. Theſe and ſimilar obſervations led Mr Smith to anticipate ſome inconſiderable parts of the ſecond principal diviſion of his work, by a brief enquiry concerning the origin of the ſenſe of juſtice, as applicable to the conduct of individuals, as well as of the ſentiments of remorſe, and of ſelf-approbation.

By means of the principle of ſympathy, he endeavours to account for our ſenſe of juſtice, and every other moral ſentiment. When we attend ſolely to the feelings of our minds, individual happineſs intereſts us more than that of all other human beings. But we are likewiſe conſcious, that, in this exceſſive preference, other men refuſe us their ſympathy, and that to them we appear only as part of the vulgar crowd, in whom we take little or no intereſt. Hence, if we wiſh to procure their approbation and ſympathy, we ſhall find it neceſſary to conſider our own happineſs, not in the light which it appears to ourſelves, but in that light which it appears to the generality of mankind. If we receive an unprovoked injury; we know, from experience, that ſociety will ſympathize with our reſentment; but, if we hurt the feelings and intereſts of another perſon, merely becauſe they ſtand in oppoſition to our own, we inſtantly perceive that ſociety will ſympathize with his reſentment, and that we ſhall become the objects of general indignation and contempt. When we are led to neglect theſe conſiderations, by the violence of paſſion, and to act from motives purely ſelfiſh, we naturally incur the puniſhment of remorſe. After our paſſion is gratified, we can no longer enter into the ſame motives to which it gave riſe. We perceive it to have been improper; we regret the effects produced by it; we pity the ſufferer whom we have injured; and we feel ourſelves to be objects of general reſentment. "Such," Mr Smith remarks, "is the nature of that ſentiment which is properly called *remorſe*. It is made up of ſhame from the ſenſe of the impropriety of paſt conduct; of grief for the effects of it; and of the dread and terror of puniſhment from the conſciouſneſs of the juſtly provoked reſentment of all rational creatures."

The contrary behaviour of a man who, from laudable motives, has performed a generous action, excites the oppoſite ſentiment of conſcious merit.

Mr Smith finiſhes his Theory by ſhowing how we acquire the *ſenſe of duty*, by applying to ourſelves the judgments we had previouſly formed concerning the conduct of other men. He begins with a well known fact, that we are conſcious of merited praiſe or blame. He likewiſe informs us, that the great object of a virtuous man is to act in ſuch a manner as to ſecure a *juſt* approbation of thoſe with whom he is converſant, as well as with mankind in general. Though this circumſtance may ſeem to imply the exiſtence of a moral feeling, independently of any external excitements, he maintains, that our moral ſentiments have uniformly a reference to what are, or ought to be, the feelings of others. If it were poſſible, he remarks, that a man

man could arrive at maturity without having any communication with his own ſpecies, he would be equally unable to form any judgment of his own conduct, as of the beauty or deformity of his countenance. He allows, however, that there is a tribunal in our minds, which judges of all our thoughts and actions, and frequently depreſſes us amidſt the applauſes, and ſupports us when labouring under the cenſures, of our ſpecies. When young and unexperienced, we are apt to indulge the impoſſible project of obtaining the approbation and even the affection of every perſon with whom we have intercourſe. But we ſoon diſcover the impoſſibility of attaining this deſirable end. Our conduct, though perfectly equitable, not unfrequently ſtands in oppoſition to the intereſts or inclinations of particular men, who are ſeldom ſo candid as to acknowledge the propriety of our motives, or to perceive that this conduct, however diſagreeable to them, is perfectly conſonant to our preſent ſituation. To defend ourſelves againſt ſuch partial judgments, we erect a judge in our own breaſts, whoſe office is to decide every queſtion that occurs between ourſelves and thoſe with whom we aſſociate in the affairs of life. To accompliſh this ſalutary end, we conceive an imaginary, but impartial ſpectator to be always preſent, and to witneſs all our actions; of courſe, we endeavour to act in a manner which we think will receive the approbation of this ſuppoſed judge of our thoughts and of our conduct.

Two motives induce us to ſelf-examination. 1ſt, Before we reſolve to act; and, 2d, After we have acted. When about to act, the force and precipitancy of the prevailing paſſion does not allow us to conſider what men of candour are to think of our conduct. After the action is performed, and the paſſions which ſtimulated us to perform it have ſubſided, though we ſympathize with the ſentiments of the ſpectator much more coolly than before; it is, however, ſo irkſome to diſapprove of ourſelves, that we turn aſide ſuch circumſtances as might render our judgment unfavourable.—From this ſource is derived that ſelf-deceit which gives riſe to many miſchiefs and calamities in this aſtoniſhing world. To guard againſt the deluſions of ſelf-conceit, nature leads us, from daily obſervations on the conduct of others, to form general rules regarding what actions are proper to be performed or avoided. Some actions ſhock all our natural ſentiments. When we ſee other people affected in a ſimilar manner, our belief in the juſtneſs of our diſapprobation is confirmed. Hence we conclude, as a general rule, that certain actions are improper, becauſe they have a direct tendency to make us odious and contemptible. By reflection, however, we endeavour to fix this rule in our minds, with a view to correct the miſrepreſentations of ſelf love. Men who indulge the feelings of anger and reſentment, if they were to obey the dictates of their paſſions, would conſider the deſtruction of their ſuppoſed enemies as a ſmall compenſation for a trivial injury. But their remarks on the conduct of others have ſhewn them how unreaſonable and horrid is ſuch ſanguinary revenge. Ideas and experiences of this kind eſtabliſh their authority, check the impetuoſity of paſſion, and correct the motives ſuggeſted by ſelf-love. According to Mr Smith, a regard to ſuch general laws of morality conſtitutes what is denominated the *ſenſe of duty*.

The whole of Mr Smith's doctrine is comprehended in a few ſen-

ſentences: When we approve of any character or action, the ſentiments which we feel are derived from four different ſources. *Firſt*, We ſympathize with the motives of the agent. *Secondly*, We enter into the gratitude of thoſe who receive the benefit of his actions. *Thirdly*, We obſerve that his conduct has been agreeable to the general rules by which thoſe two ſympathies generally act. And, *laſtly*, When we conſider ſuch actions as making a part of a ſyſtem of behaviour which tends to promote the happineſs either of the individual or of ſociety, they appear to derive a beauty from this utility, not unlike that which we aſcribe to any well-contrived machine." Theſe different ſentiments, in Mr Smith's eſtimation, completely exhauſt the compounded ſyſtem of moral approbation. With regard to the nature of virtue, he thinks it always involves the idea of propriety, or of the ſuitableneſs of the affection to the object by which it is excited, which ſuitableneſs can only be determined by the ſympathy of impartial ſpectators with the motives of the agent. This account of virtue, however, he acknowledges to be ſomewhat incomplete: Beſide propriety, actions of beneficence poſſeſs another quality; for they not only obtain our approbation, but ſeem to merit recompenſe, and to create a ſuperior degree of eſteem, occaſioned by a double ſympathy, viz. with the motives of the agent, and with the gratitude of thoſe who are the objects of affection. According to this view, beneficence appears to Mr Smith to be diſtinguiſhed from the coolier virtues of prudence, circumſpection, temperance, vigilance, conſtancy, and firmneſs, which always obtain our approbation, but excite no ideas of ſuperior merit.

To the ſecond edition of his Theory of Moral Sentiments, Mr Smith ſubjoined a ſhort, but ingenious tract, to which he gives the title of of *Conſiderations concerning the firſt Formation of Languages, and the different Genius of original and compounded Languages.*

After the publication of the Theory of Moral Sentiments, Mr Smith remained four years at Glaſgow, diſcharging his official duties with unabated vigour, and with increaſing reputation. During that time, the plan of his lectures underwent a conſiderable change. His ethical doctrines, of which he had now publiſhed ſo valuable a part, occupied a much ſmaller portion of the courſe than formerly; and accordingly, his attention was naturally directed to a more complete illuſtration of the principles of juriſprudence and of political œconomy.

(To be Continued.)

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH of the late LORD JUSTICE CLERK.

Concluded from p. 306.

IF Lord Juſtice Clerk ſhone, while a barriſter, as a profound lawyer, a powerful pleader, and an ingenious reaſoner, he was no leſs eminent as a judge for quickneſs of apprehenſion, and ſolidity of judgment. In every cauſe his Lordſhip's practice was, both while at the bar and upon the bench, firſt to make himſelf maſter of all the facts and circumſtances of the caſe, when his mind had once embraced theſe, he was never at a loſs to form an opinion; he inſtantly laid hold of ſome ſtrong principle of law upon which he reſted his judgment.

In exerciſing the functions of a

Judge,

Judge, Lord Juſtice Clerk was moſt aſſiduous and unremitting in his duty. The number of cauſes brought before him, when he ſat as the Judge Ordinary in the Outer Houſe, is a proof of the confidence the public put in his opinions. His Lordſhip knew well the expence and rancour of the "law's delay," and it was his ſtudy and endeavour, as much as lay in his power, to prevent it, by giving diſpatch, and a ſpeedy deciſion. If, in the multiplicity and hurry of buſineſs, his Lordſhip happened on any occaſion to be led into error, and to pronounce a judgment which, on more mature reflection he ſaw to be wrong; with that candour and openneſs which always characteriſe great minds, he never failed to acknowledge it. When this happened in the caſe of an appeal from his Lordſhip's bar, as an Ordinary, to the whole Lords in the Inner Houſe, Lord Juſtice Clerk was generally the firſt who ſpoke upon it; and, without heſitation declared his opinion, and moved the Court to give the parties a deliberate hearing before determining their cauſe. In giving his opinions on the bench, his Lordſhip joined to the moſt accurate conſideration of the circumſtances of the caſe, and a thorough knowledge of the legal principles which were to determine it, the happy talent of enforcing his opinion, and the grounds on which it reſted, in the cleareſt, moſt convincing, and moſt ſatisfactory manner. This was peculiarly ſtriking, when he gave his opinion upon any queſtion, which was to be determined upon the principles of the feudal law. Of his opinions from the bench, indeed, it may be ſaid in general, that they were able, clear, and convincing: the found lawyer, and the acute reaſoner, will always occur to the minds of thoſe who heard them, wherever the name of the late Lord Juſtice Clerk is mentioned.

The ſituation of this country, during a conſiderable part of the time he held the high office of Lord Juſtice Clerk, will be freſh in the memories of our readers. A period the moſt critical and alarming that the country perhaps ever ſaw. He preſided at the trials of Muir, Palmer, Skirving, Margarot, Gerald, &c.* At theſe trials, however much, as a man, he muſt have felt for his country, yet he demeaned himſelf with that juſtice and impartiality to theſe unfortunate and deluded criminals which became him as a judge. His Lordſhip has been found fault with, particularly in England, for the opinions he gave upon theſe trials, and by names, too, high in ſituation. This we muſt attribute to their being unexperienced with the law of Scotland. Perhaps his opinions did not accord with the criminal law of England; but it is ſurely raſh to pronounce the judgments given by the Supreme Court of Juſticiary wrong, becauſe they did not correſpond with the criminal code of our ſiſter kingdom. But though a diverſity of opinion may, and will, perhaps, be entertained on this ſubject, ſtill thoſe who were acquainted with the ſtrict integrity of the late Lord Juſtice Clerk's mind, will be convinced that whatever opinions he gave, or whatever judgments he pronounced, were, in his eſtimation, and to his full conviction, not only authoriſed, but enforced by the eſtabliſhed law of his country; and therefore, ſuch as it was his bounden duty to pronounce. And when we take into conſideration his abilities to judge and diſcriminate on the laws of his country, which have never been called in queſtion, we cannot heſitate to ſay, that his

* For an account of theſe Trials ſee our Vol. for 1794.

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judgments and legal opinions were entitled fully to as much weight and reſpect, as thoſe of even the higheſt names who have differed from him.

To thoſe who have been accuſtomed to the manner of an Engliſh Court, and the mode in which the Judges there, are in uſe to deliver their opinions, Lord Juſtice Clerk may, perhaps, have appeared ſomewhat deficient in that dignity which impreſſes an audience with reverence and reſpect for the ſolemnity of a criminal Court. But this was in manner only, for his integrity, his legal knowledge, and ſound judgment, have never been diſputed, and never failed to have their due weight after the firſt impreſſions *of manner* were over.

Lord Juſtice Clerk was an affectionate huſband, and a tender parent; he had a warmneſs of temper and benevolence of heart, which made him highly ſuſceptible of domeſtic attachment. As a companion and a friend he was peculiarly beloved by ſuch as ſtood in thoſe relations to him. He had an openneſs of manners, and was ſo eaſy of acceſs, that his friends were never diſappointed when they wiſhed to have his advice. His engaging, we may ſay faſcinating, manners, rendered him a moſt agreeable member of ſociety. The company was always lively and happy of which Lord Juſtce Clerk was a member.

Lord Juſtice Clerk was twice married. By his firſt lady, Miſs Mary Agnew, niece of Sir Andrew Agnew, he had two ſons; 1ſt, Robert Dundas M'Queen, now of Braxfield; 2d, John, late a captain in the 18th regiment of foot: and two daughters; 1ſt, Mary, married to William Honeyman, Eſq; of Græmſay, one of the Senators of the College of Juſtice, and a Lord of Juſticiary; 2d, Catharine, married to John M'Donald, Eſq; of Clanronald. By his ſecond lady, Miſs Elizabeth Ord, daughter of the late Lord Chief Baron Ord, who ſurvives him, he had no children.

Lord Juſtice Clerk was of middle ſize, and robuſt make; he was, what is commonly expreſſed by the terms, *hard featured*, but had a ſmall, quick eye, and expreſſive countenance, impreſſive of mildneſs and intelligence. His conſtitution was good, and he enjoyed a great ſhare of health till a year or two before his death. He was all his life accuſtomed to riſe at an early hour; he was regular in his attendance to buſineſs as a Judge, even in winter he was in uſe to be upon the bench at 9 o'clock in the morning. His complaints encreaſed much during the ſummer and autumn 1798: he continued in town and attended the bench during that ſeſſion, but in ſpring became worſe, till a period was put to his life upon the 30th day of May 1799, in the 78th year of his age. In his death his country ſuſtained the loſs of an intelligent, able, and candid judge***.

*** Since the firſt part of this account was publiſhed laſt month, we have been favoured by a correſpondent with the following notice regarding Lord Juſtice Clerk's father: 'John M'Queen of Braxfield waseducated to the law, which he practiſed for ſome time. He was afterwards appointed ſheriff-ſubſtitute for the Upper Ward of the county of Lanark, which office he exerciſed with much reſpectability and credit. He was alſo a freeholder of the county, and much eſteemed for his open candid manners and ſocial diſpoſitions. He died at an advanced period of life, much and juſtly regreted.'

PRESENT STATE OF THE CLERGY OF THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

(The following paper appeared firſt in a London Publication.)

THAT the eſtabliſhed Clergy of Scotland have loſt a great part of that reverence and popularity among the lower claſſes, which diſtinguiſhed their order at no very diſtant period, the rapid increaſe of churches *of relief*, and of ſeceding meeting-houſes of all deſcriptions, is a ſufficient indication. Almoſt every village now exhibits one or more of theſe edifices, erected in declared competition with the eſtabliſhed place of worſhip: and, as they are generally crowded with hearers, in a proportion much beyond any increaſe that can be ſuppoſed in the population of the country, it is evident that their acquiſition muſt always be made at the expence of the pariſh churches. So prevalent has this diſpoſition, to form themſelves into independent Congregations, under the direction of paſtors of their own appointing, become among the lower orders of people in Scotland, that, if ſome effectual meaſures are not ſpeedily adopted to check its progreſs, there is reaſon to apprehend that in the courſe of a very few years the office of an eſtabliſhed Clergyman may degenerate into a mere ſinecure, and the Conſtitutional Church be reduced to a form without ſubſtance.

For the truth of this ſtatement I appeal with confidence to every perſon that has opportunities of informing himſelf on the ſubject; and I am perſuaded there is no man of liberal ſentiments, who is a friend to rational religion, but will join with me in conſidering it as a circumſtance greatly to be regretted. The additional expence which the country ſuſtains by having a double eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment to ſupport, is the leaſt part of the evil. It tends equally to corrupt the eſtabliſhed Clergy, a body of men whoſe general reſpectability is a credit to the nation, and the people who are under their charge. Nothing is more ready to degrade a man in his own eſtimation, and to blunt the delicacy of his moral feelings, than the conſciouſneſs that he is enjoying the emoluments of a place, more eſpecially of a function of ſuch awful importance as the religious inſtruction of a diſtrict, without fulfilling the duties which it impoſes. A clergyman, in this ſituation, will either exert himſelf to rout his antagoniſt, and bring back the deſerters from his ſtandard—a mode of warfare which preſents ſtrong temptations to low intrigue and malevolent animoſity—or, diſpirited by the ſmallneſs of his audience, he will become negligent and remiſs in the diſcharge of his public functions. The people will be deprived of the benefit of liſtening to the inſtructions of men of juſt taſte and enlightened underſtanding; by which their minds might have been gradually formed to more rational modes of thinking on religious ſubjects. Having the power of chooſing their own ſpiritual guides in their aſſociations, they will naturally appoint only ſuch as reſemble themſelves in manners and opinions; men who muſt flatter the prejudices of their hearers in order to enſure a ſubſiſtence, and whoſe example will powerfully tend to keep alive that fanatical ſpirit with which the lower, and ſome of the middle, claſs of people in Scotland are ſtill deeply tinctured.

It is not only a queſtion of curioſity, but of the firſt importance, to inquire what are the cauſes which have led to this univerſal defection of the people from the eſtabliſhed Church. Thoſe who look no farther than their own confined experience leads them, are apt to aſcribe it, in each particular

inſtance, to perſonal prejudice and diſguſt againſt the miniſter of the pariſh; but this ſolution is too limited to apply to ſo general an effect. A circumſtance which affords grounds for a better explanation is, that ſuch of the clergy as have participated leaſt in the literary progreſs of the country, and whoſe manner of preaching has more of the laſt age than of the preſent, retain the greateſt ſhare of popularity, and have ſuffered leaſt by the deſertion of their hearers. From this fact it would appear, that the real cauſe of the diſagreement betwixt the eſtabliſhed clergy and the common people is, that they no longer bear any reſemblance to each other; *the improvement of the people not having kept pace with the progreſs of the clergy.* Prior to the Reformation, the peaſantry of Scotland poſſeſſed no general intellectual character. That important event firſt incited them to inquiry, and to mental activity; but unfortunately the ſubjects of their diſcuſſion, and the models which they had for imitation, were not calculated to refine the taſte, or to induce liberal habits of thinking. The manners of the Clergy of that period were auſtere and fanatical; their notions of religion, gloomy and unamiable; and they impreſſed their own character on the minds of the people. Since that time the Clergy and higher ranks in Scotland have made rapid advancements in taſte and liberal knowledge, but the commun people have remained nearly ſtationary. The ſame religious books which inflamed the zeal of their forefathers, occupy the leiſure of the preſent race of Scottiſh peaſantry: and as theſe performances have uſually been handed down through ſeveral generations of the ſame family, and are connected with many traditional anecdotes of the piety of their anceſtors; their veneration for them is naturally exceſſive. Vulgar minds can never ſeparate a ſubject from its acceſſaries; hence the peculiar ſtyle and manner of theſe compoſitions become inſeparably aſſociated with all their ideas of religious ſanctity. Though a preacher, therefore, ſhould deliver the very ſame doctrines that are contained in their favourite authors, yet if he adhere not likewiſe to their antiquated and often abſurd phraſeology, the people are never ſatisfied of the ſoundneſs of his theology. But no man of taſte and candour can ever do ſuch violence to the purity and dignity of his mind, as to imitate the low cant and vulgar rhapſodies that, for the moſt part, characteriſe theſe writings. Hence, if we trace back the hiſtory of the church for the laſt fifty years, we ſhall find, that the diſpoſition of the people to deſert the eſtabliſhed places of worſhip originated with the firſt dawn of taſte and elegant literature among the clergy; and has ſince gradually increaſed as theſe qualities have been more widely diffuſed.

A regard to juſtice, however, obliges me to remark, that the complaint of inſipidity and want of intereſt, which the people prefer againſt the ſermons of the eſtabliſhed Clergy, is not altogether without foundation. There is a period in the hiſtory of the human mind, when the taſte has outſtripped the other powers, and the mind is labouring after elegance, but has not quite attained it; which is, perhaps, the moſt unfavourable of any to ſtrength and vivacity of expreſſion. The public ſpeaker whoſe judgment wavers in the ſelection of his phraſes, can never produce an equal impreſſion with him whoſe feelings, by long aſſociation, have become incorporated with his words, and who ſpeaks, without heſitation, the dictates of immediate conception. At this ſtage of literary progreſs, it is natural to beſtow more attention on the poliſh of ſtyle, than on the acquiſition of ſolid materials; a character of which the ſermons of our more faſhionable preachers afford ſome indications. In addition

addition to this, it ſhould be obſerved, that ſuch of the Scotch clergy as are ambitious of purity of language, and correctneſs of accent, in their public diſcourſes, muſt maintain a conſtant guard againſt the intruſion of the popular dialect. But no man can ſpeak forcibly in a ſtyle very different from that which he is accuſtomed to uſe in daily converſation; and till the clergy of Scotland attain a perfect familiarity with Engliſh idioms and Engliſh pronounciation, they muſt ſtill be ſomewhat deficient in the eſſential articles of fluency of expreſſion and an impreſſive utterance. It was a prediction of Dr Johnſon, recorded by Boſwell, that "when the Scotch clergy give up their homely manner, religion will ſoon decay in that country." It did not occur to Dr Johnſon, that when the period of refinement ſhould arrive, the people might leave their eſtabliſhed teachers, and might hire others more conſonant to their taſte.

To ſuggeſt the proper remedy to this evil, would not, perhaps be difficult; but to carry it into effect would require an union of opinions, and a combination of powers, which are rarely to be expected from any numerous body. No ſenſible man, I imagine, would deſire that the clergy ſhould return to the vulgarity and cant of their predeceſſors in the laſt age. This would be to buy popularity at too high a price. The only alternative, then, that remains, if we would not wiſh to reduce the clergy to a level with the people, is to bring the people nearer to the clergy; to endeavour to raiſe them to that degree of intelligence and refinement as to reliſh rational inſtruction. That the literary attainments of the Scotch peaſantry are greatly over-rated in the general opinion, is evident from this circumſtance, that an accurate obſerver will find them to be totally deſtitute of juſt taſte. As their reading is chiefly confined to books of controverſial divinity, and thoſe of the leaſt reſpectable kind, and to the rhapſodical compoſitions of the old Scottiſh preachers, the only effect that can reſult from ſuch ſtudies is, a degree of polemical acuteneſs, which, however it may raiſe them above the ſame claſs of men in other countries, contributes but little to the general improvement of the mind. The great object therefore is, to diffuſe among them a taſte for the beauties of compoſition; and to diveſt their minds of that predilection for technical divinity and myſtical rant, which is the chief ſource of difference betwixt them and the eſtabliſhed Clergy. To accompliſh this purpoſe, it would be neceſſary to effect a radical change in the mode of education practiſed in all the country ſchools. It is well known that in Scotland the univerſal manual for the inſtruction of youth is the Catechiſm of the Weſtminſter Divines; and this abſtruſe compoſition is even the firſt book that children are taught to read. In all the common editions the Alphabet is prefixed, as a help to the maſter in teaching the letters; and the young ſtudent paſſes ſuddenly from the firſt rudiments of learning into the depths of ſpeculative theology. As ſoon as the children can read it with eaſe, they are enjoined to get a portion of it by heart as a daily taſk; and this diſcipline continues as long as they remain in the ſchool. The effects ariſing from this ſyſtem are ſuch as might be expected. It is obvious that it muſt completely fail of its purpoſe, which is, to inſtruct the riſing generation in the principles of ſound divinity. Children of eight or te years of age cannot be ſuppoſed to comprehend doctrines which the ableſt heads are ſometimes puzzled to explain; and the habit which they form of paſſing over the words without attending to their meaning, precludes the probability of their reading with intelligence when more advanced in life. I will venture to aſſert that, among the number of your readers

who have been educated in Scotland, there is not one but would acknowledge that the firſt time he applied to his Catechiſm in the ſpirit of curioſity, the *meaning* of each ſucceſſive paſſage ſtruck his mind with as perfect a ſenſation of novelty, as though he had never before taken it into his hands. It is to their early veneration for this performance, that we are in a great meaſure to aſcribe the fondneſs of the common people in Scotland for that technical phraſeology in which it is written, but which no preacher, who is aware that it excites no definite ideas in the minds of his hearers, can employ with a good conſcience.

The firſt ſtep towards effecting a reconciliation betwixt the people and the eſtabliſhed Clergy therefore is, to transfer the Catechiſm from the hands of the ſchool-maſter into thoſe of the miniſter; and to ſubſtitute ſuch works of taſte as, by engaging the affections, and exciting the powers of fancy, may raiſe literary curioſity, and gradually wean the vulgar from thoſe barbarous compoſitions to which they are at preſent ſo much attached. The next ſtep would be to eſtabliſh reading-ſocieties, on ſuch an oeconomical plan as to place them within the reach of the labouring claſs. I am ſorry to obſerve a prejudice in the public mind againſt theſe uſeful inſtitutions, from an impreſſion that they are often employed as vehicles for the diſſemination of irreligious and unconſtitutional principles. That they are liable, like every thing excellent and efficacious, to be miſapplied by deſigning perſons, cannot be diſputed; but there is every reaſon to believe, that their general tendency is highly favourable to human happineſs, and even to the proper ſubordination of ranks in ſociety. But in order to prevent all ſuch ſuſpicions, in regard to the eſtabliſhments here propoſed, it ſhould be made a primary article in the regulation of theſe ſocieties, that they be under the ſuperintendance of the miniſter of the pariſh, who ſhould have power to reject any publication which he might deem improper to be admitted into the collection. The liberality and well-known loyalty of the Clergy of Scotland entitle them to this confidence.

Should that reſpectable body become ſenſible of the critical ſituation in which they are placed, and concur in any common plan of remedy, I hope they will not be deterred by the ſenſeleſs clamour of the ignorant and narrow-minded, from purſuing ſuch meaſures as may appear moſt likely to attain the end propoſed, even though they ſhould extend to the abolition of ſome ancient cuſtoms. J. P. C.

PRESENT STATE OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Continued from p. 335.

The Dutch Coloniſts—Their Mode of Life, &c.

AT the head of this little valley (Hex-river valley) we were to take leave of every human habitation for at leaſt ſixteen days, the time required to croſs over the Great Karroo, or Arid Deſert, that lay between us and the diſtant diſtrict of Graaff Reynet. It therefore became neceſſary to ſupply ourſelves with a ſtock of proviſions, as nothing whatſoever is to be had on the deſert, except now and then an antelope. To thoſe travellers who are furniſhed with a good waggon and a tent, the want of habitations is no great loſs; for few of them, behind the firſt range of mountains, have any ſort of convenience, comfort, or even cleanlineſs. Among the planters of Africa it is true there are ſome who live in a decent manner,

ner, particularly the cultivators of the grape. Many of these are descendants of the French families who, a little more than a century ago, found an asylum at the Cape of Good Hope from the religious persecutions that drove them from their own country. But a true Dutch peasant, or boor, as he styles himself, has not the smallest idea of what an English farmer means by the word comfort. Placed in a country where not only the necessaries, but almost every luxury of life might by industry be procured, he has the enjoyment of none of them. Though he has cattle in abundance, he makes very little use of milk or of butter. In the midst of a soil and climate most favourable for the cultivation of the vine, he drinks no wine. He makes use of few or no vegetables nor roots. Three times a-day his table is loaded with masses of mutton, swimming in the grease of the sheep's tail. His house is either open to the roof, or covered only with rough poles and turf, affording a favourable shelter for scorpions and spiders; and the earthy floors are covered with dust and dirt, and swarm with insects, particularly with a species of the *termes*, which, though not so destructive as some others of this genus, is nevertheless a very troublesome and disagreeable animal. His apartments, if he happens to have more than one, which is not always the case among the grazing farmers, are nearly destitute of furniture. A great chest that contains all his moveables, and two smaller ones that are fitted to his waggon, are the most striking articles. The bottoms of his chairs consist of thongs cut from a bullock's hide. The windows are without glass; or if there should happen to be any remains of this article, it is so patched and daubed as nearly to exclude the light it was intended to admit. The boor notwithstanding has his enjoyments: he is absolute master of a domain of several miles in extent; and he lords it over a few miserable slaves or Hottentots without controul. His pipe scarcely ever quits his mouth, from the moment he rises till he retires to rest, except to give him time to swallow his *sopie*, or a glass of strong ardent spirit, to eat his meals, and to take his nap after dinner. Unwilling to work, and unable to think; with a mind disengaged from every sort of care and reflection, indulging to excess in the gratification of every sensual appetite, the African peasant grows to an unwieldy size, and is carried off the stage by the first inflammatory disease that attacks him.

How different is the lot of the labouring poor in England, who for six days in the week are doomed to toil for twelve hours in every day, in order to gain a morsel of bread for their family, and the luxury of a little animal food for the seventh day!

The cultivators of the ground, who inhabit the nearer districts to the town, though something better than the breeders of cattle, live but in a very uncomfortable manner in the midst of profusion. They have little or no society with each other, and every one seems to live solely for himself. Though removed from each other to the distance of several miles, and enjoying the benefit of many thousand acres of land, under the rate of a farthing an acre, it is yet a singular fact that scarcely any two neighbours are found to be on good terms with each other, but are embroiled perpetually in quarrels and disputes about the extent of their farms, or the privilege of a spring or a water-course. One great cause of their endless disputes is the absurd manner of estimating distance by time. The quantity of land in a government farm, according to the established custom of the colony, must be one hour's walk across it. If one farmer is supposed to have put down his *baaken*, or stake, or land-mark, a little too near to that of his neighbour, the *Feldwagt meester*, or peace officer of the division, is called

called in, by the latter, to pace the diſtance, for which he gets three dollars. If the Feldwagt-meeſter ſhould happen to regulate his pace to the ſatisfaction of both parties, the affair is ſettled; but as this is not always the caſe, the next ſtep is for the diſcontented party to apply for a commiſſion, conſiſting of the Landroſt, two members of the council, the ſecretary of the diſtrict, and a meſſenger. Theſe gentlemen ſhare fifteen dollars a-day as long as they are out upon the commiſſion to determine how far a man ought to walk in an hour.

The dangerous and difficult roads in every part of the colony, but particularly the kloefs or paſſes of the mountains, and the ſtill more perilous fords of the rivers, ſhow how very little ſenſe is entertained by the peaſantry of public benefits or public conveniences. Each gets over a difficulty as well as he can, and no more is thought about it till it again occurs. An inſtance appeared of this in croſſing the Breede river oppoſite to Brandt Valley, which is done by means of a ſmall flat-bottomed tub, about ſix feet by three. In this machine foot paſſengers haul themſelves over by a rope fixed to two poſts, one on each ſide of the river. When a horſe is to croſs, the ſaddle is taken off, the rider gets into the tub, and drags the animal after him. But when a waggon is to be tranſported, it muſt firſt be unladen, and the baggage carried over in the veſſel: the carriage is then made faſt by one end to this floating machine, and the other is buoyed up by a caſk, and in this manner it is dragged over. Thus is half a day conſumed in paſſing a ſmall river of thirty or forty yards at the moſt in width, when a few planks, properly put together, would enable them to carry over any ſort of carriage, cattle, or horſes, with ſafety and convenience in five minutes.

The women of the African peaſantry paſs a life of the moſt liſtleſs inactivity. The miſtreſs of the family, with her coffee-pot conſtantly boiling before her on a ſmall table, ſeems fixed to her chair like a piece of furniture. This good lady, born in the wilds of Africa, and educated among ſlaves and Hottentots, has little idea of what, in a ſtate of ſociety, conſtitutes female delicacy. She makes no ſcruple of having her legs and feet waſhed in warm water by a ſlave, before ſtrangers; an operation that is regularly performed every evening. If the motive of ſuch a cuſtom were that of cleanlineſs, the practice of it would deſerve praiſe; but to ſee the tub with the ſame water paſſed round through all the branches of the family, according to ſeniority, is apt to create ideas of a very different nature. Moſt of them go conſtantly without ſtockings and ſhoes, even when the thermometer is down to the freezing point. They generally, however, make uſe of ſmall ſtoves to place the feet on. The young girls ſit with their hands before them as liſtleſs as their mothers. Moſt of them, in the diſtant diſtricts, can neither read nor write, ſo that they have no mental reſources whatever. Luckily, perhaps, for them, the paucity of ideas prevents time from hanging heavy on their hands. The hiſtory of a day is that of their whole lives. They hear or ſpeak of nothing but that ſuch-a-one is going to the city, or to church, or to be married, or that the Bosjeſmans have ſtolen the cattle of ſuch-a-one, or the locuſts eaten their corn. The young people have no meetings at fixed periods, as in moſt country-places, for mirth and recreation. No fairs, no dancing, no muſic, nor amuſement of any ſort. To the cold phlegmatic temper and inactive way of life may perhaps be owing the prolific tendency of all the African peaſantry. Six or ſeven children in a family are conſidered as very few; from a dozen to twenty are not uncommon; and moſt of them marry very young, ſo

that

that the population of the colony is rapidly increaſing. Several, however, of the children die in their infancy, from ſwellings in the throat, and from eruptions of the ſame kind they are ſubject to in the Cape. Very few inſtances of longevity occur. The manner of life they lead is perhaps leſs favourable for a prolonged exiſtence than the nature of the climate. The diſeaſes of which they generally die in the country are bilious and putrid fevers and dropſies.

The men in general are much above the middle ſize, very tall and ſtout, but ill made, looſely put together, awkward, and inactive. Very few have thoſe open ingenuous countenances that among the peaſantry of many parts of Europe ſpeak their ſimplicity and innocence. The deſcendants of French families are now ſo intermarried with thoſe of the original ſettlers, that no diſtinction, except the names, remain. And it is a remarkable fact, that not a word of the French language is ſpoken or underſtood by any of the peaſantry, though there be many ſtill living whoſe parents were both of that nation. Neither is a French book of any kind to be ſeen in their houſes. It would ſeem as if theſe perſecuted refugees had ſtudied to conceal from their children their unfortunate hiſtory and their country's diſgraceful conduct.

The means of education, it is true, muſt be very difficult to be had among a people ſo widely ſcattered over a vaſt extent of country, as the peaſantry are in the colony of the Cape. Some have a perſon in the houſe whom they call the ſchoolmaſter. This is generally a man who had ſerved out his time in the ranks. His employment, in this new ſituation, is not only to inſtruct the children to read, to write, to ſing pſalms, and get by heart a few occaſional prayers, but he muſt alſo make himſelf ſerviceable in other reſpects. At one place that we paſſed, the poor ſchoolmaſter was driving the plough, while a Hottentot had the more honourable poſt of holding and directing it. The children of thoſe who either cannot obtain, or afford to employ ſuch a perſon, can neither read nor write; and the whole of their education conſiſts in learning to ſhoot well, to crack and uſe with dexterity an enormous large whip, and to drive a waggon drawn by bullocks.

A book of any kind is rarely ſeen in any of the farmer's houſes, except the Bible and William Sluiter's Geſangen, or ſongs out of the Bible, done into verſe by the Sternhold and Hopkins of Holland. They affect to be very religious, and carry at leaſt the devotion of religion fully as far as the moſt zealous bigots. They never ſit down to table without a long grace before meat pronounced with an audible voice by the youngeſt of the family; and every morning before day-light one of William Sluiter's Geſangen is drawled out in full chorus by an aſſemblage of the whole family. In their attendance at church they are ſcrupulouſly exact, though the performance of this duty coſts many of them a journey of ſeveral days. Thoſe who live at the diſtance of a fortnight or three weeks from the neareſt church generally go with their families once a year.

Rude and uncultivated as are their minds, there is one virtue in which they eminently excel—hoſpitality to ſtrangers. A countryman, a foreigner, a relation, a friend, are all equally welcome to whatſoever the houſe will afford. A Dutch farmer never paſſes a houſe on the road without alighting, except indeed his next neighbour's, with whom it is ten to one he is at variance. It is not enough to inquire after the health of the family in paſſing: even on the road, if two peaſants ſhould meet, they inſtantly diſmount to ſhake hands, whether ſtrangers or friends. When a traveller arrives at a habitation, he alights from his horſe, enters the houſe, ſhakes

ſhakes hands with the men, kiſſes the women, and ſits down without farther ceremony.—When the table is ſerved he takes his place among the family, without waiting for an invitation. This is never given, on the ſuppoſition that a traveller in a country ſo thinly inhabited muſt always have an appetite for ſomething. Accordingly, 'What will you make uſe of?' is generally the firſt queſtion. If there be a bed in the houſe, it is given to the ſtranger; if none, which is frequently the caſe among the graziers of the diſtant diſtrict of Graaff Reynet, he muſt take his chance for a form, or bench, or a heap of ſheep-ſkins, among the reſt of the family. In the morning, after a ſolid breakfaſt, he takes his *ſopie*, or glaſs of brandy, orders his ſlave or Hottentot to ſaddle the horſes, ſhakes hands with the men, and kiſſes the women; *he* wiſhes them health, and *they* wiſh him a good journey. In this manner a traveller might paſs through the whole country.

If the economy of the African farmer's houſe be ill managed, that of his land is equally bad. The graziers, indeed, in many places, are not at the trouble of ſowing any grain, but exchange with others their cattle for as much as may be neceſſary for the family conſumption. But even thoſe who have corn-farms near the Cape ſeem to have no kind of management. They turn over a piece of ground with a huge miſhapen plough, that requires eight or ten horſes, or a dozen oxen, to drag it along: the ſeed is ſown in the broad caſt way, at the rate of about a buſhel and a half to an acre; a rude harrow is juſt paſſed over it, and they reap from ten to fifteen for one. No manure comes upon the ground except a ſprinkling for barley. In low ſituations near rivulets, where the water can be brought upon the ground, they reap from thirty to forty for one. Water in fact is every thing in Southern Africa. Not like the Chineſe, whoſe great art of agriculture conſiſts in ſuiting the nature and habit of the plant to that of the ſoil, which he alſo artificially prepares, the Dutch peaſant at the Cape is ſatisfied if he can command only a ſupply of water. He beſtows no kind of labour on the ground but that of throwing in the ſeed: the reſt is left to chance and the effects of an excellent climate. The time of ſeeding is in the months of May and June; and of harveſt, from November to January. The grain is trodden out by horſes on circular floors in the open air; and the ſtraw is left to rot or to be ſcattered about by the winds.

IMPROVED METHOD OF MAKING STEEL.

STEEL is a modification of Iron; the metal however after having undergone the operation deſcribed below, is greatly altered in its properties. It is much more eaſily fuſed than iron, it is more difficultly forged; and, in forging, great care is neceſſary not to over heat it. Steel has greater ductility than iron, but is much more brittle, and when broken they ſhow different ſurfaces, the iron is ragged and fibrous, the ſteel breaks ſhort acroſs and ſhows grains: The principal change however is the hardneſs which ſteel acquires, and the ſtrong cohesion of its parts. It will perhaps appear aſtoniſhing to thoſe unacquainted with the ſubject, to be informed that this great and eſſential change is produced by the ſimple operation of heating bars of iron, along with charcoal or other carbonaceous matter, in a crucible. The author of the following paper has improved upon the uſual mode of preparing ſteel, and he has further rendered it more ductile under the hammer, a defect which rendered this valuable metal leſs uſeful,

ful, it being extremely difficult to join two pieces of ſteel by welding as is done to iron.

For this invention Mr Muſhet has obtained his Majeſty's royal letters patent; and, certainly, few diſcoveries of ſo much importance to this country have been made for a number of years paſt. The manufacture of caſt ſteel, which has hitherto been tedious and expenſive, is now reduced to a proceſs of a few hours; and the quality of the article at the ſame time ſo much improved, as to be applicable to many purpoſes to which ſteel of the common manufacture cannot be applied. We ſhall not, however, dwell on the utility of the invention, but lay before our readers an account of it, extracted from Mr Muſhet's ſpecification, which will ſpeak more to an intelligent mind than would a volume of eulogium.

"The general principles of my proceſs or proceſſes are the fuſion of malleable iron, or of iron ore, in ſuch manner, and by ſuch means, as immediately to convert them into caſt ſteel; and, likewiſe, in certain caſes, the after cementation of this ſteel to give malleability, and the property of welding, in order to fit it for ſuch purpoſes as require ſteel poſſeſſing theſe properties. Theſe principles can be acted upon for the production of the various qualities of ſteel in a variety of ways; but the principle of my invention, and the mode of operation, may be fully underſtood by the examples which I ſhall adduce, and which will enable any perſon to perform the ſame, and to vary and alter the mode of operation according to his intention, and the particular quality of ſteel he may wiſh to manufacture.

"Thus, caſt ſteel may be made by taking any convenient quantity of malleable iron, according to the ſize of the furnace and crucible or crucibles to be employed, and introducing it into the crucible or crucibles along with a proper proportion of charcoal, charcoal duſt, pit-coal, pit-coal duſt, black lead, or plumbago, or of any ſubſtance containing the coally or carbonaceous principle; but, in general, charcoal, pit-coal, or pitcoal cokes, eſpecially if prepared in the manner herein after deſcribed, will be found to anſwer beſt. For this proceſs not only bar iron may be employed, but alſo what is commonly called ſcraps, or waſte iron; but, when the latter is uſed, a little more carbonaceous matter muſt be added to the mixture, to revive the ruſt, or oxyd of iron, adhering to the ſcraps. The mixture in the crucible or crucibles muſt then be put into a furnace capable of giving a ſufficiently intenſe degree of heat to run down or fuſe the mixture, which muſt then be poured out into bar, ingot, or other moulds, according as the manufacturer intends to produce bars or ingots, or various articles or utenſils that are, or may be, made of caſt ſteel; for the whole iron, by fuſion with the charcoal or other ſubſtances, or things containing carbonaceous matter, will be found to have paſſed into the ſtate of caſt ſteel. If caſt into bars or ingots, and a proper quantity of charcoal, or other ſubſtances or things containing carbonaceous matter, has been employed, ſuch bars or ingots will be found in a ſtate ready to take the hammer, and to be drawn or rolled into other ſhapes, according to the intention of the manufacturer. In ſome caſes, eſpecially where a heavy charge is to be run down, the crucibles muſt be previouſly properly diſpoſed in the furnace, and the mixture introduced into them afterwards.

"By the proceſs before decribed, and which may be varied with circumſtances by any prudent operator, caſt ſteel may be made in a few hours, which, by the proceſs or proceſſes hitherto diſcovered, has uſually required many days, and ſometimes weeks; for caſt ſteel, by the common method of manufacture, has been hitherto made from bar ſteel, which had previouſly

viouſly required, for its own converſion into that ſtate, from the ſtate of bar iron, or of ſcrap-iron, a tedious cementation with charcoal, in a furnace conſtructed for the purpoſe, and uſually known among manufacturers, by the name of a converting furnace.

" It cannot here eſcape obſervation, that this is not the only ſaving in point of time and expence, gained by my proceſs or proceſſes; for, when I meet with or procure ironſtones or iron-ores ſufficiently rich, and free from foreign mixtures, I ſave even the time and expence neceſſary for the converſion of ſuch iron ſtone or iron-ore firſt into caſt or pig-iron, and afterwards by a tedious and expenſive proceſs, accompanied with a great waſte of metal, into bar-iron. For ſuch ore or iron-ſtones, being previouſly roaſted or torrified, when that proceſs may be found neceſſary, which will often happen, may be ſubſtituted for the bar-iron, ſcrap, or waſte iron, as before deſcribed, and the reſult will be caſt-ſteel, if a proper quantity of charcoal, charcoal-duſt, pit-coal, pit-coal duſt, plumbago or black lead, or of any ſubſtance containing carbonaceous matter, has been uſed.

" For the common and ordinary qualities of caſt-ſteel, a much ſmaller quantity of carbonaceous matter is requiſite in the mixture than perhaps could have been ſuſpected before my invention. When charcoal from wood is employed, a ſeventieth to a ninetieth of the weight of the iron will generally be found ſufficient. When the quantity of the carbonaceous matter or principle exceeds one ſeventieth, and is increaſed to from one ſixtieth to one fortieth, or more, of the weight of the iron, the ſteel becomes ſo completely fuſible that it may be run into moulds of any ſhape, and be capable afterwards of being filed and poliſhed. Hence by caſting may be conſtructed ſtoves, grates, kitchen utenſils, many kinds of wheels and mill work, a great variety of ſmall machinery, and many other articles, which could not be ſo made by the proceſſes now in uſe, and which way of making ſuch articles conſtitutes a part of my invention.

" By my proceſs various kinds of ſteel, differing as much from each other in their qualities as the various kinds of pig or caſt-iron differ from each other, can be formed by merely varying the proportion of carbonaceous matter. Caſt-ſteel of the common and ordinary qualities is too volatile when in fuſion to admit of being run into any ſhape except ſtraight moulds of a conſiderable diameter; but ſteel of ſuch denſity as to admit of being caſt into any form, may be produced by my proceſs, by increaſing the quantity of charcoal, or matter containing the carbonaceous principle, and then fuſing the mixture as before directed. When I wiſh to produce qualities of ſteel ſofter than is uſually manufactured by the common proceſſes, I find it beſt to uſe a ſmall proportion of charcoal, ſometimes ſo little as a two hundredth part of the weight of the iron. Steel produced with any proportion of charcoal, not exceeding a hundredth, will generally be found to poſſeſs every property neceſſary to its being caſt into thoſe ſhapes which require great elaſticity, ſtrength, and ſolidity. It will alſo be found generally capable of ſuſtaining a white heat, and of being welded like malleable iron; and, indeed, as the proportion of charcoal or other carbonaceous matter is reduced, the qualities of the ſteel will be found to approach nearer to thoſe of common malleable iron.

" By further purſuing the principle of my new invention, I fuſe down malleable bar or ſcrap-iron in a crucible or crucibles, without any viſible addition of carbonaceous matter, and run it into bar, ingot, or other moulds. In this ſtate the metal is nearly of the ſame quality as when put in, only altered by the combination of a ſmall portion

portion of carbonaceous matter, which the iron by its chemical affinity attracts from the ignited fuel, or from the ignited carbonic gas of the furnace, and which enters by the mouth, or through the pores of the crucible or crucibles, probably diſſolved in caloric at a very high temperature. But whether ſo diſſolved or not, the fact is, that a portion of the carbon paſſes from the fire into union with the iron, and thereby converts it into an extremely ſoft ſteel.

"Beſides the different modes of operation above ſpecified, I further reduce iron-ore, bar-iron, or ſcrap-iron, by the addition of lime or chalk, or other carbonats, or of caburets, with clay, glaſs, and other fluxes, in various proportions, and form all the various qualities of ſteel formerly enumerated.

"If the various kinds and qualities of ſteel, obtained by the proceſs or proceſſes above mentioned, be introduced into the common converting or other ſteel furnaces, in contact with carbonaceous matter, or with earths, and heated for five days, or more or leſs, according to the thickneſs of the bars or other forms, and the quantity introduced, the bars, ingots, or other ſhapes, being then taken from the furnace, will be found to poſſeſs all the ſolidity which they formerly were poſſeſſed of as caſt-ſteel, with that property of welding peculiar to bliſtered, faggot, or German ſteel of the uſual mode of manufacture.

"By this invention I obtain ſteel which for ſolidity may be uſed for the purpoſe of caſt ſteel; uniting at the ſame time the property of welding, without deſtroying the ſolidity or quality of the metal:—a circumſtance of the higheſt importance to our manufacturers. Ingots, bars, plates, and every ſhape into which this ſteel is caſt, rolled, or hammered, will be poſſeſſed of uniformity of quality, without thoſe numerous reeds, flaws, bliſters, and diſjoined laminæ found in ſteel made by the proceſſes in uſe before my invention.

"When pit-coal cokes are to be uſed in any of the foregoing operations, either in mixture with the ore, or with the iron, or for fuel in the furnaces, in which the crucibles containing the mixture are expoſed to the action of the fire, it is of the utmoſt importance that the cokes be properly prepared. The proceſs which I have found to anſwer beſt for this purpoſe, though common cokes will alſo do, is founded upon the principle, that all acceſs of oxygen to the coals to be coked, ſhould be prevented: this end is gained by preparing the cokes in iron veſſels, in the ſame manner as wood is now charred for the purpoſe of being employed in the manufacture of gunpowder. The bitumen, or coal-tar as it is commonly called, which is volatilized from the coals to be coked, by the heat applied to the exterior of the iron veſſel or other chamber containing the ſaid coals, is thus ſaved, inſtead of being burnt or diſſipated in the atmoſphere, as is the caſe in the common proceſs of coking, in which the coals are expoſed to combuſtion in open heaps, and which alſo partially, though in a leſs degree, takes place in the proceſs commonly known by the name of Lord Dundonald's proceſs for preparing coal tar."

HISTORY OF WOOD-CUTS.

WOOD-CUTS are engravings on wood, commonly on box, which, in many caſes, are uſed with advantage inſtead of copper-plates. The art of cutting or engraving on wood is undoubtedly of high antiquity; for Chineſe printing is a ſpecimen of it. Even in Europe, if credit be due to Papillon, this art was practiſed at a period conſiderably remote; for he mentions

eight engravings on wood, entitled, 'A repreſentation of the warlike actions of the great and magnanimous Macedonian king, the bold and valiant Alexander; dedicated, preſented, and humbly offered, to the moſt holy father, Pope Honorius IV. by us Alexander Alberic Cunio Chevalier, and Iſabella Cunio,' &c. This anecdote, if true, carries the art of cutting in wood back to 1284 or 1285; for Honorius occupied the papal throne only during theſe two years. Even this is not the remoteſt period to which ſome have carried the art in Europe; for the uſe of ſeals or ſignets being of very high antiquity, they imagine that the invention of wood-cuts muſt be coeval with them. The ſuppoſition is certainly plauſible, but it is not ſupported by proof. The earlieſt impreſſion of a wooden cut of which we have any certain account, is that of St Chriſtopher, carrying an infant Jeſus through the ſea, in which a hermit is ſeen holding up a lantern to ſhew him the way: and a peaſant, with a ſack on his back, climbing a hill, is exhibited in the back ground. The date of this impreſſion is 1423.

In the year 1430, was printed at Haarlem, 'The Hiſtory of St John the Evangeliſt, and his revelation, repreſented in forty-eight figures in wood, by Lowren Janſon Coſter:' and, in 1448, Jorg Schapff, of Augſburg, cut in wood, the hiſtory of the Apocalypſe, and what was called *The poor man's bible*.

A folio chronicle, publiſhed 1493, by Scheda, was adorned with a vaſt number of wood-cuts, by William Plydenwurff and Michael Wolgemut, whoſe engravings were greatly ſuperior to any thing of the kind which had appeared before them. Wolgemut was the preceptor of Albert Durer, whoſe admirable performances in this department of art are juſtly held in the higheſt eſteem even at the preſent day.

About this time it became the practice of almoſt all the German engravers on copper to engrave likewiſe on wood; and many of their wood-cuts ſurpaſs in beauty the impreſſions of their copper-plates. Such are the wood cuts of Albert Aldtorfer, Hiſbel Pen, Virgil Soles, and Lucas van Lyden, the friend and imitator of Albert Durer, with ſeveral others. It appears that the Germans carried this art to a ſingular degree of perfection. Hans or John Holbein, who flouriſhed in 1500, engraved the 'Dance of Death,' in a ſeries of wood-cuts, which for the freedom and delicacy of execution, have hardly been equalled, and never ſurpaſſed.

Italy, France, and Holland, have produced many capital artiſts of this kind. John Torrentinum printed a bible, at Leyden, in 1554, (a copy of which we have ſeen) with wooden cuts of excellent workmanſhip. Chriſtopher Jegher, of Antwerp, from his eminence in the art, was employed by Rubens to work under his inſpection, and he executed many pieces which are held in much eſtimation; the character of theſe is boldneſs and ſpirit.

The next attempt at improvement in this art was by Hugo da Carpi, to whom is attributed the invention of the *Chiaro Scuro*. Carpi was an Italian, and of the ſixteenth century; but the Germans claim the invention alſo, and produce in evidence ſeveral engravings by Mair, a diſciple of Martin Schoen, of date 1499. His mode of performing this was very ſimple. He firſt engraved the ſubject upon copper, and finiſhed it as much as the artiſts of his time uſually did. He then prepared a block of wood, upon which he cut out the extreme lights, and then impreſſed it upon the print; by which means a faint tint was added to all the reſt of the piece, excepting only in thoſe parts where the lights were meant to predominate, which appear on the ſpecimens extant to be whitened with white paint. The drawings for this ſpecies of engraving

were

were made on tinted paper with a pen, and the lights were drawn upon the paper with white paint.

There is, however, a material difference between the *Chiaro Scuros* of the old German maſters, and thoſe of the Italians. Mair and Cranach engraved the outlines and deep ſhadows upon copper. The impreſſion taken in this ſtate was tinted over by means of a ſingle block of wood, with thoſe parts hollowed out which were deſigned to be left white upon the print. On the contrary, the mode of engraving by Hugo da Carpi was, to cut the outline in one block of wood, the dark ſhadows upon a ſecond, and the light ſhadows, or half tint, upon a third. The firſt being impreſſed upon the paper, the outlines only appeared: this block being taken away, the ſecond was put in its place, and being put in the ſame place upon the removal of the ſecond, and being alſo impreſſed upon the paper, made the dim tints, when the print was completed. In ſome inſtances, the number of blocks were increaſed, but the operation was ſtill the ſame, the print receiving an impreſſion from every block.

In 1698, John Baptiſt Michel Papillon practiſed engraving on wood with much ſucceſs, particularly in ornamental foliage and flowers, ſhells, &c. In the opinion, however, of ſome of the moſt eminent artiſts, his performances are ſtiff and cramped. From that period, the art of engraving on wood gradually degenerated, and it may be ſaid to have been wholly loſt, when it was lately re-invented by Mr Bewick, of Newcaſtle.

This eminent artiſt was apprentice to Mr Bielby, an engraver on metal, ſuch as the faces of clocks, &c. Application having been made to him for a wood-cut or two of the moſt trifling deſcription, the job was given to Thomas Bewick; by whom it was executed in ſuch a manner, that Mr Bielby, who was accuſtomed to employ his apprentices in ſuch work, adviſed him to proſecute engraving in that line. The advice was followed; and young Bewick inventing tools, even making them with his own hands, and ſawing the wood on which he was to work into requiſite thickneſs, proceeded to improve upon his own diſcoveries, without aſſiſtance or inſtruction of any kind. When his apprenticeſhip expired, he went to London, where the obſcure wood engravers of the time wiſhed to avail themſelves of his abilities, while they were determined to give him no inſight into their art. He remained ſome years in London, and during that time, if we miſtake not, received from the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, &c. a premium of conſiderable value for the beſt engraving in wood. Returning to Newcaſtle, he entered into copartnerſhip with his old maſter; and eſtabliſhed his reputation as an artiſt by the publication of his admirable Hiſtory of Quadrupeds. This was followed by his Hiſtory of Birds, of which only one volume has yet been publiſhed.

John Bewick, brother to Thomas, learned the art of him, and practiſed it for ſeveral years in London with great applauſe. His abilities, however, though reſpectable, were not, by the beſt judges, deemed ſo brilliant as his brother's; and owing to bad health, and the nature of his conexion with the bookſellers, and others, he ſeems not to have advanced the art beyond the ſtage at which he received it. He died, three or four years ago, at Newcaſtle.

Mr Nesbit and Mr Anderſon have hitherto been the laſt of Thomas Bewick's pupils, who have appeared before the public as artiſts (the former in an edition of Hogarth, the latter in the plates of Grove-hill, a poem.) By theſe gentlemen we are authorized to ſay, that the method practiſed by the ancient engravers on wood, whoſe works are ſtill admired, muſt have been different from that of Bewick and his

his pupils. What that method was ſeems to be altogether unknown. Papillon, who writes the beſt hiſtory extant of the art, gueſſes indeed in what manner the old engravers proceeded, ſo as to give to their works the ſpirit and freedom for which they are famed: but that his gueſſes are erroneous ſeems evident from the ſtiffneſs of his own works. The principal characteriſtic, in the mechanical department of the productions of the ancient maſters, is the croſſing of the black lines, which Papillon has attempted with the greateſt awkwardneſs, though it ſeems to have been accompliſhed by them with ſo much eaſe, that they introduced it at random, even where it could add nothing to the beauty of the piece. In Bewick's method of working, this croſs hatching is ſo difficult and unnatural, that it may be conſidered as impracticable. Mr Neſbit has introduced ſomething of it into two or three of his pieces, merely to ſhow that he *could* do it; but ſo great was the labour, and ſo little the advantage of this improvement, if ſuch it can be called, that probably it will not be attempted again.

The engravers of Bewick's ſchool, work on the end of the wood, which is cut acroſs the trunk of the tree, in pieces of the proper thickneſs. As wood cuts are generally employed in the printer's preſs, amid a form of types, this thickneſs muſt be regulated by the height of the types, with which they are to be uſed. The tools employed are nearly the ſame with thoſe uſed in copper-plate engraving, being only a little more deep, or lozenge, as engravers call it. They muſt have points of various degrees of fineneſs for the different purpoſes to which they are applied, ſome of them being ſo much rounded off at the bottom as to approach to the nature of a goodge, while others are in fact little chiſſels of various ſizes. Theſe chiſſels and goodges, to which every artiſt gives the ſhape, which he deems moſt convenient, are held in the hand in a manner ſomewhat different from the tool of the engraver on copper, it being neceſſary to have the power of lifting the chips upward with eaſe. To attempt a deſcription of this in writing would be in vain; but it is eaſily acquired, we are told, by practice.

The pupils of the ſchool of Bewick, conſider it as quite improper to ſpeak of his invention as a revival of the ancient art. Some old prints, it is true, have the appearance of being executed in the ſame way with his; but others have certainly been done by a method very different. It is therefore, not fair to appreciate the preſent art by what has been done, but by what may be done; and that remains yet to be ſhown. The art is in its infancy; and thoſe who are diſpoſed to compare it with the art of engraving on copper, ought to look back to the period when copper-plate engraving was of as recent invention as Bewick's method of engraving on wood. Marc Antonio, who engraved under the direction of the great painter Raphael, thought it no mean proof of his proficiency in his art, that he was able to imitate on copper-plate the wood-cuts of Albert Dürer; and Papillon is highly indignant that there ſhould have been perſons ſo very blind, as to miſtake the copies for the originals. If copper has its advantages over wood in point of delicacy and minuteneſs, wood has, in its turn, advantages not inferior in regard to ſtrength and richneſs. Theſe prints, which were executed under the auſpices of Titian and Rubens, will always remain a monument of the ſpirit and vigour natural to wood-engraving; and if there be not found in them all the attention to *chiaro ſcuro*, which the preſent age demands, it muſt not be attributed either to defect in the art, or to want of abilities in the artiſts, but to the taſte of the times when *chiaro ſcuro* was little underſtood. It remains for ſome enterprizing artiſt, to ſhow

that

that the vigour of the ancient art may be attained by the preſent one, and at the ſame time to add to that vigour thoſe gradations of ſhade, which are ſo much admired in good copper-plates. As there ſeems to be a more perfect, or at leaſt a more pleaſant black produced by wood than by copper-plate printing, and certainly a more perfect white (the parts of the print intended to be white are not even touched by the wood-block) who will ſay that any intermediate ſhade whatever may not be produced by wood-cuts? To attempt this on a ſmall ſcale would indeed be in vain, becauſe the ſlighteſt variation, produced by a little more or leſs ink, or a harder preſſure in printing, bears ſuch a proportion to a very ſhort line, as muſt neceſſarily render the attempt abortive.

Wood-engraving, therefore, muſt always appear to diſadvantage while it is confined to ſmall ſubjects, and will never reach its ſtation as a fine art, till thoſe who are engaged in its cultivation improve upon the diſcoveries of one another, and apply it to ſubjects to which it is properly adapted. As an economical art for illuſtrating mechanics, and other ſubjects of ſcience, it is too little employed, even in its preſent ſtate.

Supplement to Enc. Brit.

To the Editor of the Scots Magazine.

OBSERVATIONS ON PRIDE.

"*Pride goeth before a Fall.*"

Sir,

I confeſs that from my infancy, I was always led to conſider *pride* as one of our greateſt enemies. I cannot help telling you, that I read your correſpondent's paper on this ſubject, given in your April number with ſome degree of aſtoniſhment, mixed with a ſpice of indignation. I have taken much pains Sir, to infuſe into my children the good leſſons and maxims, which I myſelf learned from my worthy parents, who were always on the watch to curb and keep down any tendency, which they perceived to pride and vanity in my compoſition. I could wiſh this to fall into the hands of your correſpondent before he gives the ſequel of his paper, that he may ſee in what light other people conſider this great foe to human happineſs, for it is falſe opinions which ruin us. I have always obſerved, that people of every rank and condition, have a very large account to ſettle with pride.

In our commerce with the world, we purchaſe the paltry articles of pride and vanity, ſuch as equipage, dreſs, and the refined pleaſure of cuſtom, at a very high price. We are debtors in an abundance of wealth and happineſs, and place nothing to the creditor ſide of the account, but empty gratifications, fears, anxieties, diſeaſe and ſelf-reproach: when we might have received, in exchange for the goods of Fortune, the ſubſtantial advantages of peace, independence, and ſelf-ſatisfaction.

But we muſt mend the morals before the manners can be improved. The ridiculous diſtinctions of appearance in dreſs, the living in a certain ſtile, etiquette, and other nonſenſicals of cuſtom, muſt be aboliſhed, as unneceſſary to happineſs and true politeneſs, and deſtructive of morality; cleanlineſs and propriety muſt be ſubſtituted in the place of thoſe unmeaning faſhions by which imperious Abſurdity inſolently proclaims her pre-eminence over Reaſon, with the joint aſſiſtance of ſome wretched coxcomb and an ignorant taylor. It becomes us now to cheriſh the uſeful, and to abandon the frivolous: let us endeavour to reſtore, if poſſible, the manners of thoſe good old times, when the man was reſpected for his worth, and not for his coat. It is a reflection

flection upon the ſenſe of the people conſidered as neceſſary to our ſucceſs in the world; and that in this country a fool may, and a man of merit muſt, puff himſelf into public eſtimation. The judgments we form from outward appearance, are of all others, the moſt fallacious, the moſt injurious to ourſelves, and the moſt deſtructive of thoſe genuine principles of truth which preſerve the order and happineſs of ſociety. Let us endeavour, then, by the aſſiſtance of Good Senſe, to ouſt the monſter Faſhion and the tyrant Cuſtom from their poſſeſſions among the upper and middling claſſes of people; they are not harmleſs or inſignificant, but allure, deceive, and betray their votaries to ruin.

Were we to reflect upon the vaſt numbers of thoſe who daily ſuffer from the deſire of making an appearance in the world above their circumſtances, one would almoſt wish that ſumptuary laws were eſtabliſhed to ſpare the cruel competition.

" For Satan now is wiſer than of yore,
" And tempts by making rich, not making poor."

But the endemic of Pride is a contagion that attacks all ages and conſtitutions: it rages, indeed, chiefly among the great and rich, but it is to be found alſo in the miſerable haunts of the poor; it is the vulture that gnaws at every breaſt, and is the prolific parent of every care.

As Pride is the greateſt enemy, ſo Humility is the beſt friend of mankind; Humility and Happineſs increaſe in an equal ratio. If Viciſſitude lowers our eſtate, it is only drawing upon a portion of Humility, and the account is balanced. We ſhall always find, in the journal of life, that if we would be conſiderable creditors in riches, we muſt neceſſarily be debited with innumerable cares.

Never let any body perſuade you to go beyond your circumſtances. If you are determined to be worth nothing, at any rate let your expences be in exact proportion to your income; but if you would lay up for a rainy day, or bad times, let them be *ſomething leſs*. Pride is not eaſily gratified; you will ſtill be far behind fools more expenſive than yourſelf; follow the good old maxim, " Be juſt before you are generous." Keep out of debt, and you will always have ſomething to be generous with. Yours,

Square Toes.

RETROSPECT OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Continued from p. 321.

THE peculiar circumſtances which uſhered in the eighteenth century, gave riſe to two parties, which pretty nearly divided the kingdom of politicians for the greater part of it. The terms Whig and Tory originally underſtood to mean thoſe who were friends, and thoſe who were enemies to the revolution principles, which placed king William on the throne, continued for the greater part of that century to be the leading diſtinctions of political zeal. The jacobites were perhaps a third, but leſs important party, and derived their power, when they could ſhow any, from an alliance with the tories. In time, however, from the many defections in principle which diſgraced both whigs and tories, they ſeemed, in the public opinion, ſo far confounded, that the tories were conſidered as perſons *in* power, and the whigs *out* of power, and that a change of ſtations produced a correſpondent change of principles. Certain it is that no party in our time have preſerved in place, thoſe principles which they held when out of it, and which were probably the cauſe of their promotion. The frequent inſtances that had occurred of this political apoſtacy, as it has been called, had rendered the nation con-

conſiderably callous to profeſſions of patriotiſm. When the French revolution took place, it ſoon deſtroyed all former political diſtinctions, ſubſtituting in their room new ideas of government, and conſequently eſtabliſhing new parties.

At firſt, and indeed during the three firſt years of this revolution, before the French convention imbrued its hands in the blood of the mildeſt monarch that ever ſwayed the ſceptre of France, the diſtinction was into ariſtocrat and democrat, phraſes which, if they had remained at home, would not have demanded our notice in this place; but unfortunately they were ſoon imported, and eagerly adopted in our own country. An ariſtocrat was ſaid to be the friend of arbitrary power; a democrat the friend of mob-government or anarchy. Such were the explanation the ariſtocrat gave of the democrat, and *vice verſa*. The ariſtocrat merely avowed his attachment to monarchial government, and a democrat profeſſed to be the friend of liberty. In a ſhort time, however, while the ariſtocrat remained, the democrat became a *jacobin*, a name which is ſtill retained, although ſo variouſly applied, that it is not eaſy to appreciate its full meaning. By moſt it is, however, underſtood to import that revolutionary mania and levelling principle, without ſenſe, without ſyſtem, without humanity, which prevailed during the firſt two years, or perhaps more, after the death of the king of France. Since that period, ſo many parties have ſtarted in France, and obtained a temporary ſuperiority, that all principle ſeems confounded; and although France has lately been ſucceſsful, it is impoſſible to ſay under what deſcription her civil government can be ranked.

The mention of the French revolution, by far the moſt important event of the eighteenth century, on which volumes have been written, and on which volumes will continue to be written, neceſſarily leads us to cloſe our brief retroſpect of the paſt century, with a view of the ſtate of Europe; and it is with much ſatisfaction that we are enabled to contemplate a ſuperiority in the fate of Great Britain: This ſuperiority conſiſts, in the progreſs of her commerce, the ſecurity of her poſſeſſions, by a navy bleſſed with uninterrupted ſucceſs, and by a *credit*, which neither misfortune nor, we had almoſt ſaid, miſconduct has been able to ſhake. Whoever compares the ſtate of Great Britain at the commencement, and at the cloſe of the laſt century, will be ſtruck with the amazing contraſt, the immenſe improvements, and the unabated ſpirit of commerce, and manufactures, which has obtained for her a decided preference in foreign markets. Let it be remarked alſo, that as the century began with the union, ſo obviouſly pointed out by nature, between the crowns of England and Scotland, ſo it has concluded by an union, as obviouſly ariſing from policy and neceſſity between Great Britain and Ireland. The return of peace will, in all human probability, extend the advantages Great Britain enjoys to the united kingdom, in ſuch a manner as to conſolidate its intereſts upon the firm baſis of popular opinion, and render the future attempts of foreign hoſtility, or domeſtic diſaffection, wholly nugatory.—Whatever differences of political ſentiment may be among us, whatever opinion ſome may entertain of the meaſures adopted by the late adminiſtration, or of the actual ſtate of the country in its liberties and privileges, we apprehend, that upon a fair eſtimate and compariſon, it will be found that there is no nation under the earth at this moment, which can boaſt of more advantages, of a more pure conſtitution, or more practical liberty, nor where the general character of the people is better adapted to form a ſociety of happineſs and ſecurity. It is in vain to expect *perfection* in forms of government, in ſets of miniſters, or in great bodies

of people, but let the comparison we have recommended be fairly instituted, and we think it impossible that the result should not be to the honour of the nation.

If we look at the next formidable power, the ancient rival of Great Britain, France, it will be seen that no country has undergone changes so very important in the course of the last century. At the commencement of it, and under the reign of Louis XIV, a despotic prince, no nation was so remarkable for loyalty. At the conclusion, all respect for monarchical government was either wholly suppressed, or so diminished, as never to have been formidable to any of the successions of revolutionary governments; greater in arms than at the beginning of the century, but in order, society, regular establishments, commerce, depending on chance and shifts.

Spain presents us with an instance of gradual decline during the whole of the eighteenth century; a decline, however, which has been progressive for a much longer period. Its alliance with France, by what was called the Family Compact, seemed to have been intended to buttress its failing fabric, but the only consequence was, its being involved in the same wars with France, and having its navy destroyed and its possessions taken by the English. Scarcely any nation is more insignificant in the scale of Europe at present.

Portugal, once a trading and a flourishing kingdom, has declined in like manner, deriving its principal support from its colonial possessions, and a beneficial trade with Great Britain. That it should not have been swallowed up in the revolutionary wreck of Europe long ere now, is somewhat extraordinary. Nature has been bountiful to this country, but it has much longer retained the bigotry and superstition of the Romish religion than any other country, and the improvements of mind are less to be looked for in it than in any part of Europe.

Russia, during the eighteenth century, has made a gigantic progress. At the beginning, it was not equal to either Denmark or Sweden, but by the wisdom of its sovereigns, it has not only spread to a greater extent than that of any other nation, but risen to a very important rank among the powers of Europe. Much of its superiority must be attributed to the management of the empress Catherine, who, with many failings, contrived the means to promote the useful arts at home, and keep together an immense population, rising through various gradations of slavery. She was certainly one of the *wisest* of princesses, but whether the means she took to extend her influence and her empire, were always the best and most justifiable, is a question which a politician would have more pleasure in answering than a moralist. Russia had eight sovereigns during the last century, four of whom were women.

Poland was, at the beginning of the 18th century, a formidable power, and a desirable ally to the sovereign of the north. Within a few years, we have seen it completely blotted out of the map of Europe as a kingdom. Its dominions were divided, though not in equal shares, between Russia, Prussia, and Germany. It had only three kings in the course of the whole century, the last of whom, although a dethroned monarch, had the singular fortune to die a natural death, *Rex Polonorum ultimus*.

Sweden another small, but warlike state, has not advanced much in political importance during the last hundred years. By remaining neutral, however, during the war, she has profited as a trader with the belligerent powers, but at the very close of the century, was induced to join in a confederacy against Great Britain, from which she cannot be supposed to derive much advantage. The present is the fifth monarch since the commencement of the last century

Denmark, once, likewise, a formidable

able neighbour, has now ſunk into the placid ſtate of a commercial nation, governed, as we have been aſſured by a wiſe prince, during the incapacity of his father, and profiting by the ſame line of neutrality obſerved by Sweden. In commerce and civilization, Denmark made great progreſs in the courſe of the laſt century, but her political conſequence as a *power* is gone for ever. Four ſovereigns have ſwayed the Daniſh ſceptre ſince 1700.

The ſtates, we have already enumerated, owe little of their changes, during the laſt century, to the conſequences of the French revolution. What follows are entirely indebted to that event for their riſe or fall.

Pruſſia—a dukedom only at the beginning of the eighteenth century, has, through the management of five very politic ſovereigns, riſen to the importance of a leading power in Europe, and its recent alliance with France has given it a preponderating conſequence, which even the great Frederick could neither have foreſeen nor expected. It has always had the good fortune to profit by the diviſions of its neeighbours, and its conduct for the laſt eight years places the cunning of government in a very ſtriking point of view.

Germany, a ſtate vaſt, unwieldy, and cumbrous, of the firſt importance when the laſt century began, and maintaining its conſequence throughout the greater part of it, always in one part or other the ſeat of war, immenſe by its extent, and complicated by its various intereſts, ſeems now to be on the verge of diſſolution. Belgium is loſt to it, and the hard conditions of the treaty of peace in agitation will contract its limits much further. Joſeph II, appears to have laid the foundation of the diſſenſions, which rendered it a more eaſy prey to the French arms, and yet perhaps Joſeph was not the moſt impolitic of the eight ſovereigns, who had to guide its affairs during the laſt century.

Holland at the beginning of our period, was one of the principal commercial nations; it enjoyed practical liberty; ſtrict in its religion and morals; a refuge for the perſecuted of all nations; and the uſeful ally of all commercial ſtates. At the end of the century, it has loſt its only ſupport, its trade; it gave up its ancient government, and is in fact a province of France.

The Italian ſtates may now be claſſed together as alike in their misfortunes, attributable to that great revolution, which has rendered our geographical and ſtatiſtical records as a 'tale that is told.' At the beginning of the laſt century, the papal power was great—not indeed as it had been previous to the reformation—but in Catholic countries its influence was temporal as well as ſpiritual in a very great degree. The cauſes of its precipitate fall have been traced by an able and induſtrious writer, to ſocieties of infidels on the continent. There may be truth in this; but ſtill the power of the pope, and the doctrines of popery itſelf are not of that kind, which could have long withſtood the regular propagation of truth and proteſtantiſm, without the latter being accuſed of deriving any aid from the conſpiracies of infidels. At the cloſe of the century, the eccleſiaſtical ſtate of Rome was entirely overthrown, and not one of its vaſſal powers in Europe were able, or willing to lend a hand to ſupport it. But beſide the influence of French arms in this overthrow, it is evident that a diſunion among the Italian ſtates, rendered them a more eaſy prey to the invader than they would otherwiſe have been. They have formerly reſiſted the moſt powerful monarchs; but a long period of peace had 'ſickled o'er the land,' with effeminacy. No one can contemplate the ſtate of ſociety in Italy, and conſider it as beneficial to happineſs, religion, or ſocial order. The deſcription Goldſmith gave ſome

years ſince, in his much admired poem, is too juſt:

Could nature's bounty ſatisfy the breaſt,
The ſons of Italy were ſurely bleſt.——
But ſmall the bleſs that ſenſe alone beſtows,
And ſenſual bleſs is all the nation knows.
In florid beauty groves and fields appear,
Man ſeems the only growth that dwindles here.
Contraſted faults through all his manners reign;
Though poor, luxurious; though ſubmiſſive, vain;
Though grave, yet trifling; zealous, yet untrue:
And even in penance planning ſins anew.
All evils here contaminate the mind,
That opulence departed leaves behind, &c.

The other ſmall ſtates of Europe, the duchy of Savoy, the Swiſs Cantons, &c. have experienced ſimilar revolutions from the incurſions of the French. Of theſe, the overthrow of the Swiſs afforded moſt regret to men of reflection. That peaceful country, long the nurſe of liberty, and the ſure refuge from the oppreſſion of neighbouring nations, preſents no longer an aſylum to the man of taſte and literature. He cannot now retire thither to enjoy freedom from the convulſions of war and tumult. Political diſſenſion has ſpread its baneful influence among a people, once invincible by union and local ſecurity.

There is one empire more which may be added to the liſt of thoſe, which, in the courſe of the laſt century, have ſuffered a gradual declenſion, that of Turkey, now tottering to its foundation. It is not eaſy, indeed, to conceive how an empire ſo conſtituted could long ſubſiſt in the neighbourhood of civilization and improvement. But ages may yet paſs before the inhabitants of the Turkiſh dominions, whoever may be their conquerors, can derive the bleſſings of rational liberty, of literature, or of religion.

No nation on earth has more cauſe to be thankful for the advantages it enjoys and has enjoyed for many centuries than Great Britain, yet if theſe are employed to unworthy purpoſes, if peace begets inſolence, and ſecurity takes from us a reverence for the 'giver of every good and perfect gift,' we may have reaſon to fear that the ſcourge which has chaſtiſed the impiety of nations, will fall with redoubled force on thoſe to whom 'much has been given, and of whom much will be required.'

K.

ACCOUNT of the moſt remarkable EXTRANEOUS FOSSILS found in SCOTLAND.

(*Continued from p.* 341.)

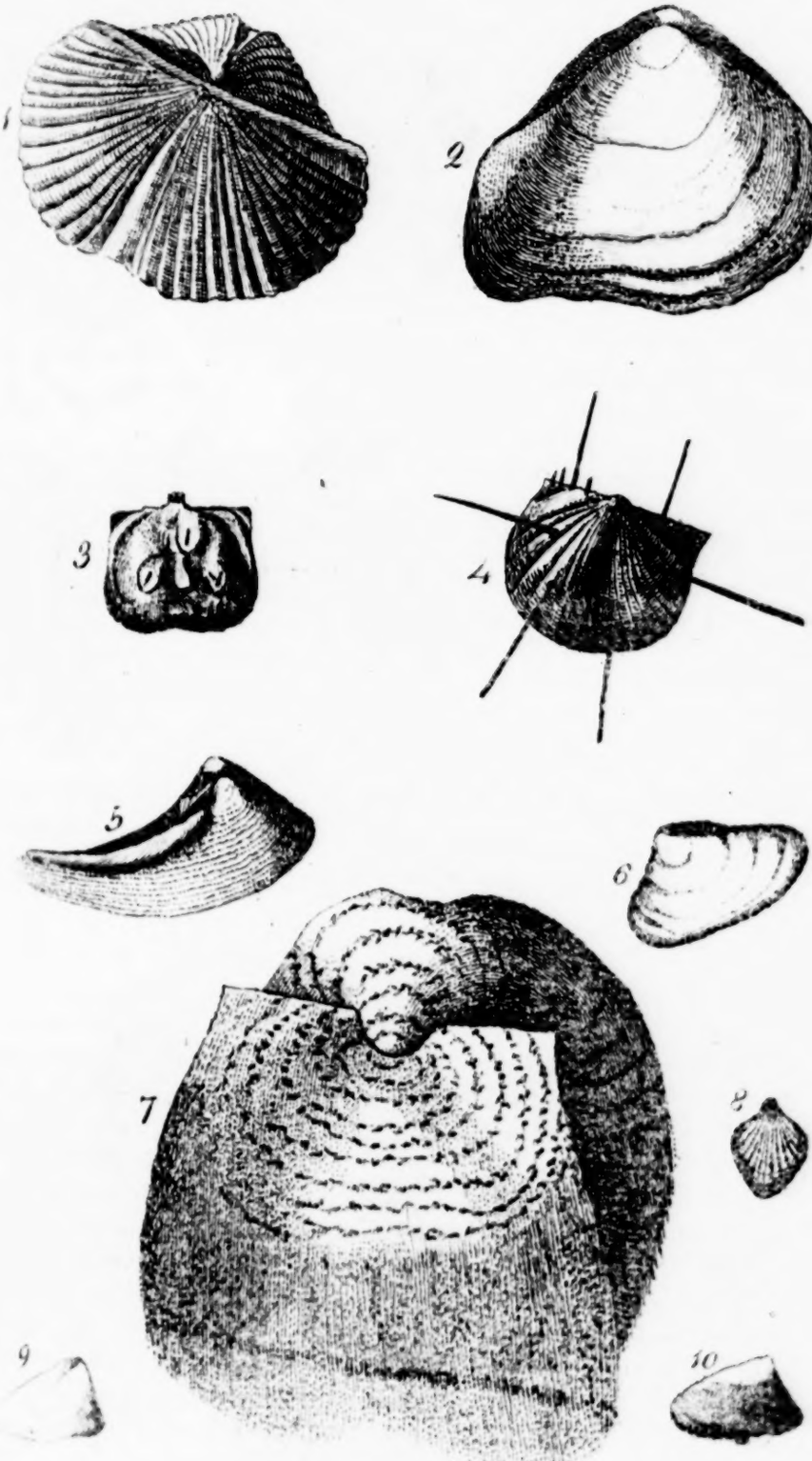
IN the enumeration of marine productions found in a foſſil ſtate in Scotland, I mentioned ſhells firſt. Theſe, in conſiderable variety, are to be found in a great many places. Indeed, wherever there is coal and limeſtone, foſſil ſhells are to be ſeen. The places however, where they have been diſcovered, in greateſt variety and abundance, are in the neighbourhood of Glaſgow and Paiſley, in the quarries in the pariſhes of Rutherglen and Kilbride; at the lime works of Inverteil in the county of Fife, and at Limekilns. In the ſtatiſtical reports, many other places are mentioned, as producing foſſil ſhells, which I ſhall afterwards notice, but for the moſt part theſe reports neither ſpecify the kind of ſhells, nor the particular ſpots where found.

Plate V. fig. 1, 5,* repreſent varieties of the Turbo, but they are not numerous in a foſſil ſtate any where in Scotland. Another kind is delineated

* The plate exhibits the natural ſize of the ſpecimens, unleſs otherways mentioned.

fig.

VI



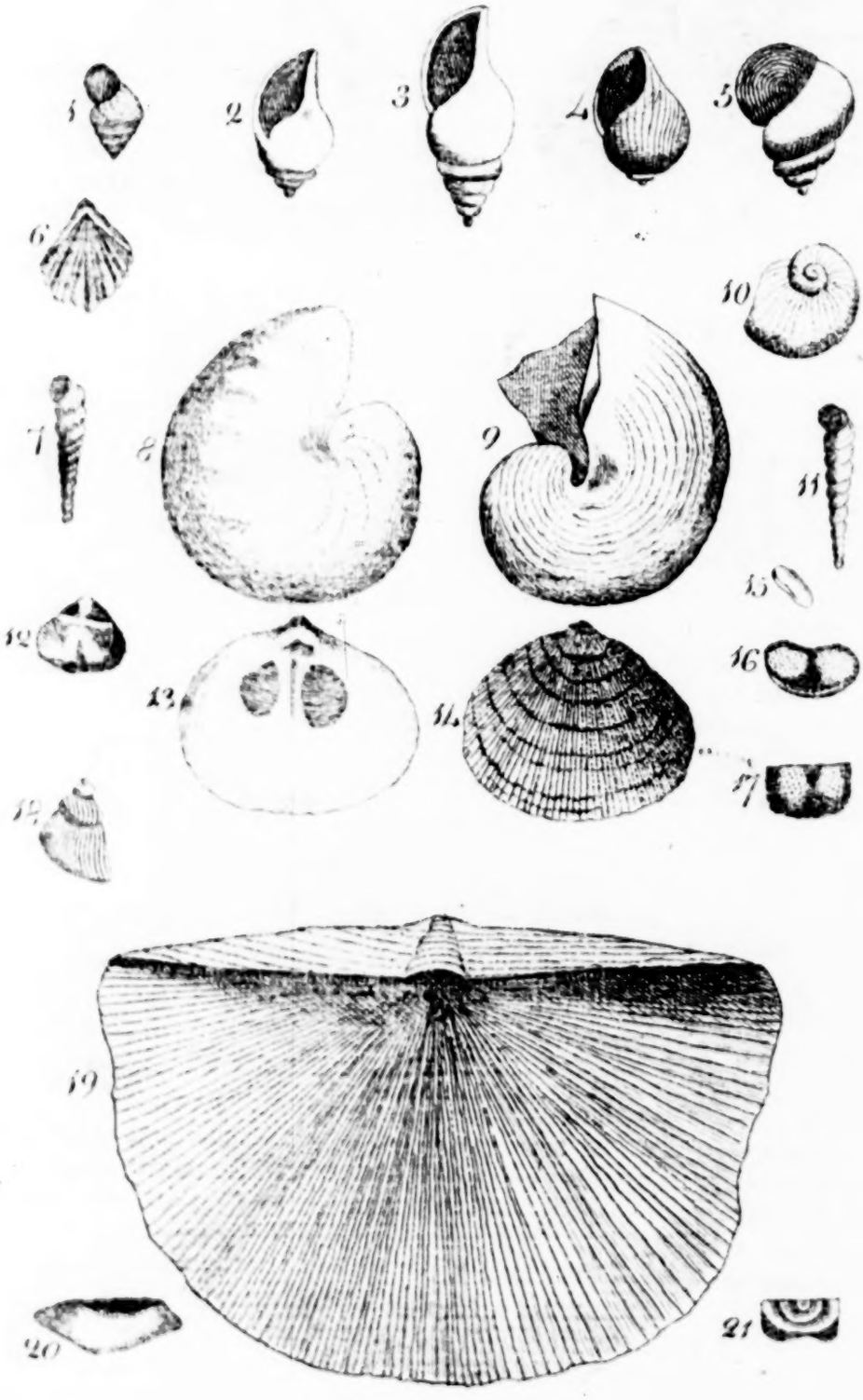

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fig. 7 and 11. This is the *Terebra*, or the *Turbo clavicula longissima*. It is striated transversly (7) as well as spirally (11), and is found upon all the coasts in Scotland in a recent state, as well as over the shores of Europe. Wherever shells are found in a fossil state, these are generally amongst them. They lie for the most part in till, in the neighbourhood of limestone. They are found of all sizes, from a microscopic size, to upwards of an inch long. They are found at Stuartfield and Lawriston, in the County of Lanark.

The buccinum fig. 2, 3, 4, is not frequent.

Fig. 6. See fig. 12. below.

Fig. 8. Seems to be a chambered nautilus. The specimens frequently retain the shell, which is very thin and has a fine polish. They are found, though sparingly, at Lawriston and Thornliebank.

Fig. 9. Seems to be a nautilus, but not chambered; it is of a globoze form, and beautifully adorned with fine prominent threads, which give it a kind of striated appearance. The specimens of this nautilus are found for the most part retaining the shell, which is of a whitish colour, pretty thick and well polished within. Some of these are found of an inch in diameter, others small.

Fig. 10. 18. Is the trochus. Neither this nor the other kind of whelk represented, fig. 18. are found in plenty in any part of Scotland.

Fig. 6. 12. Represent two species of the *anomiæ*. It may be proper to remark, that this name is rather indefinite. It was first introduced into the system of fossil shells by Fabius Columna, an accurate naturalist. Finding that many species were not described by writers on conchology, he called them *conchæ rariores anomiæ*. This name, ever since, has been adopted as the *nomen proprium* of that numerous family of shells.

The genus represented by fig. 6. is the *anomiæ striatæ*, they are found in several places in the parish of Kilbride, but the specimens are mostly bruised, as in the engraving. A species of *anomiæ leaves* is delineated fig. 12. They are found in plenty in a lime quarry on the east bank of Aven, a little below Strathaven, I believe they are elsewhere very scarce.

Fig. 13. 14. Are intended also to represent another species of anomiæ striatæ which is very beautiful, other specimens are thin, of a white colour, and finely striated, fig. 13. shows the inside. These are pretty common, they are met with at Philipshill, and at Freehorn near Beith.

Fig. 15. 16. 17. 20. 21. Are microscopic shells found in marble, and can only be perceived to be shells with difficulty by the naked eye. They all belong to the muscle tribe. Those of fig. 15. are the most numerous, are of a pure white colour, and retain a very fine polish. The figure is greatly magnifyed. Fig. 16. is the scarcest of any, and the most curious; fig. 17. and 21. are different views of it. The shell is of a brown colour, and ornamented with minute indentings, the dots upon figure 17. exhibit the natural size of the shell.

The species fig. 20. is commonly five or six times larger than the former.

These very uncommon shells have not, so far as I have been able to learn, been found any where in Scotland, but at Lawriston and Stuartfield, in the parish of East Kilbride.

Fig. 19. Is a specimen of the pecten, one of the largest size that is usually met with in Scotland. They are rare, but are sometimes found at Limekilns and Innerteil quarry, both in the county of Fife.

Plate VI. The shell fig. 1. is very beautiful, and belongs to the anomiæ striatæ. It consists of two teeth in the under valve, which are inserted into two corresponding furrows in the upper. It is very usual to find these fossils in fragments, or greatly bruised. Many of them retain the marks of bruises,

bruiſes, received in a living ſtate. They are found at Lawriſton, and Thorneliebank.

Fig. 2. is the cockle. Such are generally found imbedded in ſhiſtus, along with buccini entrochi; and many are ſo clear and perfect, that they appear to be in a living ſtate. Thoſe are found at the ſame places with the above, and in the neighbourhood of Paiſley, cockle ſhells and pholades have alſo been found near the old bridge of Lanark.

Fig. 3. 4. Repreſent the *anomiæ echinatæ*, or unequal valved foſſil ſhells furniſhed with ſpines. The under valve (fig. 4.) is convex, having the contour greatly curved over the upper valve, which is almoſt level, or only a little concave. The ſpines are few, and regularly placed, and are all on the upper valve; they are long too, and flexible in a ſlight degree. The general appearance of them is that of wires of mother of pearl, retaining the moſt finiſhed poliſh. They conſiſt of two parts; an external covering compoſed of a great number of concentric lamellæ, extremely thin and ſhining; theſe conſtitute about half the thickneſs of the ſpire. Within is a white ſolid opake ſubſtance, which compoſes the other part. The lamellæ appear to be an elongation of the ſeveral coats, or lamellæ, of the ſhell to which the ſpires adhere, or rather out of which they ſeem to grow. It is evident therefore, that they were not moved by articulations or cartilages, like the ſpires of the recent echini. Many of the fragments are greatly bruiſed or flattened, which injuries they muſt have received when recent. Theſe ſpires are placed on the under valve, in ſuch a manner, that they may be uſed to aſſiſt the animal in ſuſpending itſelf on the ſurface of the water; they might alſo be uſeful in procuring food, or warding off danger. The peculiar conſtruction of the inſide of the upper valve, is delineated fig. 3.

Theſe are found at Innerteil quarry in Fife, at the quarries in the pariſh of Kilbride, and near Paiſley.

Fig. 5. 6. Exhibit two ſpecies of the *mult-articulate* cockle. The hinge, which is obſervable in the caſts only, conſiſts of about twelve teeth in each valve. Some of theſe are found ſo perfect, that ſeveral perſons, ſuppoſing them to be living, have attempted to open them. The ſhell in both ſpecies is white, and commonly in a high ſtate of preſervation. They are generally found lodged in till. The ſpecies fig. 5. is finely ſtriated.

Fig. 7. Is a ſpecies of *echinata*, as both valves are entirely covered with very ſmall ſpines reſembling hair, they deſerved rather to be called *conchæ pilosæ*, the draught is repreſented as partly covered with them, and partly not. Theſe ſpines are in rows, nearly concentric with the beak. Their exact length, cannot be preciſely aſcertained, but in no ſpecimens found in Scotland, that I have ſeen, do they reach beyond the contour of the ſhell. They lie ſo cloſely together, that the ſurface of the ſhell is entirely concealed from view. The inſides of the valves are ornamented with ſhort papillæ, placed in rows like the ſpines. The ſpecimens are of different diameters, ſome are not above half an inch in length, others are as large as the figure. They are found, but ſparingly, among till in limeſtone quarries.

Fig. 8. Repreſents a very beautiful ſmall *pecten*, which is rare; found at Limekilns.

Fig. 9. 10. Repreſent the *patella* or limpet. It is uſually found among till, incumbent on limeſtone. The native ſhell is for the moſt part entire, and is of a deep blue colour inclining to black. Limpets are not very common in a foſſil ſtate in Britain. Moſt of the limeſtone quarries in Kilbride however, have them; good ſpecimens have alſo been found in Magpiehill quarry, pariſh of Stewarton.

To be Continued.

FOR THE SCOTS MAGAZINE.

A SKETCH of the Moſt Remarkable Scenery near CALLANDER.

THIS part of the country having been, of late, much reſorted to by ſtrangers, it may be proper to remark, that an immediate view of the landſcape, in which the village of Callander is ſituated, may be ſeen from the top of the Bridge, at the diſtance only of 300 yards from the inn. At the end of the Bridge is the conical Mount of St Keſſac; on the weſt, you have different peeps of two rivers, meandring through a meadow of great extent. Their banks, fringed with wood, are encompaſſed with ſloping farms, which riſe from the plains to the foot of the hills. Benledi raiſing his towering head to the clouds, bounds the proſpect in that direction.

The Craig of Callander, on the north, forms a contraſt, by its rude grandeur, to the neatneſs of the village below. And, on the eaſt, the river, after making a ſweep or two, is apparently loſt among the trees which ſurround the Roman Camp, the delightful reſidence of Captain Fairfoul, and the Manſe, on its oppoſite ſides. This is eſteemed one of the moſt beautiful ſpots in the environs of Callander. Its natural beauty has been ſet off to great advantage, by the taſte diſplayed in ſome additional embelliſhments. A clean neat terrace has been carried along the ridge of the wooded bank, which follows all its bends and windings, and returns by the brink of the river, where the murmuring ſtream ſeen through the trees, and occaſional views of the Bridge, and of ſome neighbouring houſes, form a pleaſant variety.

About a mile and a half north eaſt from Callander, in the glen betwixt Achinlaich and Brackland, the bridge over Kelty is ſingularly romantic. This bridge conſiſts of two ſticks, covered with ſome branches of trees, which are overlaid with turf. It ſtretches over a chaſm, and reſts on two projecting rocks, whoſe towering tops are 100 feet above the bottom of the narrow deep and rugged glen, in which the water flows. From every crevice in theſe rocks ſprout ſhrubs of copſewood, which, in different directions, overhang the ruſhing ſtream below.

The winding path to the bridge of Brackland is very confined, and very ſteep, along the ſides of ſome large ſhelving blocks, that had fallen down from the frowning rock, which hangs over the traveller's head. Having gained the end of the bridge, the ſpectator views the cataract on his left, daſhing from ſide to ſide, and ruſhing from rock to rock, till it come to the great fall, terminating in the deep pool below the bridge; where the whole river is precipitated in a white ſheet, rolling, guſhing, toſſing, thundering down.

The country people, from the mere force of habit, paſs this bridge with little emotion, even while the ſpray, in a high wind, wets their cloaths: And yet the very act of looking down, muſt appal a ſtranger, more eſpecially when the river is in flood, beholding the altitude of his ſituation, the deepneſs and narrowneſs of the ravine, the windings of the glen, the gloomy precipices around him, the ſucceſſion and roaring of the different falls, and the blackneſs of the pools below.

The Hon. Mrs Murray concludes her deſcription of this bridge, (page 155 of her Tour) in theſe words: "The chaſm between the two rocks, over which the bridge is laid, cannot be wider than four or five yards. Before I ventured upon the bridge, I ſtood trembling to gaze and admire; for I could not help ſhuddering, though I was highly gratified with the whole ſcene. The bridge appeared ſo ſlight, and the depth below ſo terrific, that I was in ſome doubt whether I ſhould venture to croſs it. My little guide, however, ſtood upon it, whiſtling with the utmoſt unconcern. I followed him; but ſkipt over as faſt as I could, without looking upon either ſide: it being a narrow, tottering green path, from rock to rock; not a bit of fence on either ſide; about a yard wide, and vibrating when trod upon. I got upon a huge projecting tower in front of the chaſm, to ſee the bridge and caſcades, in every point of view. In getting to that point, I was obliged to ſtep

ſtep over ſeveral rents in the rocks, of at leaſt a foot wide, the depth of them not to be ſeen: But the grand beauties ſeen from that ſtation, made full amends for my temerity in getting to it. Yet the bridge, on my return, was no leſs tremendous than when I firſt croſſed it."

Near this bridge, and downwards a little on the right ſide of the river, is an oval rampart, on the ſummit of a rifing ground, which is ſurrounded only by a ſingle ditch and mound of earth. It appears to have been a place of no great ſtrength; were it not, that the wild glen behind the projecting rocks and darkening trees, afforded at all times a near and ſafe retreat. Commanding a view of the whole country, it might be uſed as a watch-tower, for which purpoſe it was well adapted.

The ſcenery at the eaſt end of Loch Catharine, called the Troſachs, by reaſon of its being ſo rough, ſo uneven, ſo much wooded, and ſo wild, is more frequented than any other place near Callander. Here nature has put on her moſt rude attire: and the ſublimity, the variety and the richneſs of the ſcenery, exceed all deſcription. To explore the Troſachs, is the work of a day from Callander; being ten ſtatute miles diſtant: and therefore, it is neceſſary to carry a refreſhment thither, both for men and horſes. The road is much improved, ſo that carriages can travel with ſafety.

The beſt road is by Kilmahog, where the cell of St Hog or Hug, with the conſecrated ground around it, is ſituated about a ſtone-caſt from the north end of the bridge. Leaving Kilmahog, you paſs below the Dun of Bochaſtle, where the remains of three tire of ditches and mounds, together with a reſervoir for holding water on the ſummit, are tolerably entire; which ſhews, that it probably was a watch tower, for alarming the country in troublous times, receiving its ſignals from Dumait, (the hill of the good proſpect) near Stirling, which may have had communication with ſome hill at Queen's Ferry, probably Dundas, (the ſouth hill,) and that with the Baſs or the Law of North Berwick.

Along the north ſide of Loch Venachoir, (the Lake of the fair valley,) you have Benledi to the right; on whoſe ſummit, there was held an anniverſary aſſembly of the inhabitants, for many miles round, during three days and nights, at the ſummer ſolſtice, in the time of the Druids, for the purpoſes of devotion: From which circumſtance, this mountan got its name, (Benledi ſignifying in Gaelic, The Hill of God.) On the weſtern boundary of Cuilnteogle, and almoſt oppoſite to a ſmall iſland in Loch Venachoir, there was diſcovered, and ſtill remains, a rude image, graven in ſtone, reſembling the head, neck, and ſhoulders of a human being. The ſtone is different from any ſpecies found in this country; rings a little when ſtruck upon; and ſeems to have been imported, either before or ſince the times of the Druids, when idolatry prevailed. The Druids flouriſhed in Britain, and in many other countries of the north-weſt of Europe, about the beginning of the Chriſtian æra:—how long before is uncertain. They were expelled from Caledonia, about the ſecond century, by Fingal, whoſe elevation to the royalty they vigorouſly oppoſed.

On the banks of Loch Venachoir, there is a ſucceſſion of woods and corn fields, which diverſifies the proſpect, and dignifies the ſcenery: particularly at the weſt end of the arable ground of Blargarie, where the ſmall iſland of Broin (Lamentation) comes in view, with the whole length of Loch Venachoir, the wooded bank of Coil-avroin, and the inſulated hill Lanrick and Coith. Benvenue, and the adjacent mountains, bound the proſpect to the weſt.

The ſcenery at Bridge of Turk is ſoft and beautiful, along the river ſide: and the ſurrounding hills, lofty and ſublime. On the right, you have a diſtant view of the Foreſt of Glenfinlas, once covered with the deer of the Kings of Scotland. The King's ſeat, the field for tilts and tournaments and horſemanſhip, is ſhewn.

In one of the defiles leading to Glenfinlas, and over a tumultuous cataract, hangs a frowning ſteep rock; in one of the ſhelves of which, a lawleſs man took ſhelter. A female friend handed his victuals over the brow of the precipice, in a rope, down to his aſylum; ſo that it was a long time before he could

could be diſlodged. The rock is called The Hero's Shield.

Beyond the Bridge of Turk, the banks of Loch Achray, or Achravy, (the Field of Devotion,) which riſe almoſt perpendicular over the lake, are beautifully romantic; being cloſely wooded from the water's edge to the ſummit. At the neareſt point or headland you come to, on the ſide of Loch Achray, you have the firſt, but a diſtant, view of the Trotachs, ſcattered in wild confuſion along the weſt end of that lake. About a quarter of a mile farther on, and at the ſecond headland, nearly oppoſite to a ſmall iſland, you have a nearer and more complete view, extending from the foot of Benvenue * on the ſouth, to Binean † on the north. Betwixt theſe two mountains, the rocks, and woods, and vallies, and hills, exhibit the moſt ſingular and ſtriking appearance.

At the next farm, enquire for a guide, if you require one. From this farm, and at the weſt end of Loch Achray, every thing around you is grand, wild, and pictureſque. Every ſtep you advance, new ſcenery is coming in view; and the different diſtances of the wooded hills on the right, gives them an apparent motion of different degrees of velocity. As you proceed, all ſeems to be alive and moving. The weeping birches, with their pendulous branches, and waving ringlets, on the ſides of winding vallies, and on the tops of hills, retiring from the eye or coming in view, have a charming effect. The venerable oak that baffles every blaſt; rocks piled upon rocks, peeping through the trees; ſhrubs and trees ſprouting from clefts in the craggy precipice, growing ſideways, and downwards, and obliquely, and in every direction: finally, the aged Binean rears his lofty head above all the hills, looking down upon them as his children, if not in origin, at leaſt in ſize.

(To be continued.)

* This mountain is called Benvenue, The Small Hill, becauſe it is lower than Benledi on the north-eaſt, and Benlomond (contracted from Benlochlomond, The Mountain of the Lake full of Iſlands) on the ſouth-weſt; from which it is almoſt equally diſtant, forming nearly a ſtraight line with both.

† Called Binean, a Peak, which is the diminutive of Been, a Mountain; the ſyllable (an) being the maſculine termination of diminutives, and (ag) of feminines.

REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

Hiſtory of Ruſſia, from the Foundation of the Monarchy by Rurik, to the Acceſſion of Catharine the Second. By W. Tooke, F. R. S. Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, and of the free Economical Society at St Peterſburgh. 8vo. 2 vols. 18s. boards. *Longman and Rees.*

WE have already had occaſion to announce two works from the pen of Mr Tooke, relative to Ruſſia; one entitled *The Life of the Empreſs Catharine II.*, and the other, *A View of the Ruſſian Empire during the reign of Catharine II., to the end of the preſent century.* The firſt volume of the preſent publication commences with a chapter on the antient inhabitants of the country; which appears to be only an abridgment of the account contained in the author's View of the Ruſſian Empire. In the ſecond chapter, we meet with a very ingenious diſſertation on the affinity between the Sclavonian and Latin languages, tranſlated from M. Leveſque; who, with great ſkill and critical acumen, has traced, in a variety of inſtances, a moſt remarkable reſemblance between thoſe languages: whence he infers that theſe two people had the ſame origin.

The third chapter contains an account of the religion of the antient Sclaves; which, like the mythology of all ignorant and barbarous people, con-

fifted of an idolatrous polytheifm, aferibing to every element of the moral and phyfical world its invifible and prefiding power: giving to each river, each mountain, and each foreft, its own peculiar God; and in fhort exalting to the rank of divinity every thing which is the conftant object of man's hope or fear.

In general the hiftory of Ruffia prefents to the reader a feries of multiplied but uniform wars among its different princes, who were almoft inceffantly in arms for independence, fupremacy, or plunder.

Previoufly to the ninth century, little more is known of the hiftory of Ruffia than the mere exiftence of the two Sclavonian ftates of Kief and Novgorod. For two centuries, Ruffia continued to increafe in extent and power; particularly during the fucceffive reigns of Vladimir the firft, and his fon Yaroflat; and it was under the reign of the former of thefe two princes, that chriftianity became the predominant and eftablifhed religion of the Ruffians. Prior to his time, fome few converts had been made; among whom was the grand-princefs Olga, grandmother of Vladimir. As there is fomething fingular in this introduction of Chriftianity, both in the previous character of the prince and in other circumftances attending it, we fhall prefent our readers with the following paffages:

'Vladimir refolved to return thanks to the gods for the fuccefs they had granted to his arms, by offering them a facrifice of his prifoners of war. His courtiers, more cruel in their piety than even their prince, perfuaded him that a victim felected from his own people would more worthily teftify his gratitude for thefe fignal difpenfations of Heaven. The choice fell on a young Varagian, the fon of a chriftian, and brought up in that faith. The unhappy father refufed the victim: the people enraged, as thinking their prince and their religion thus infulted at once, aflailed the houfe; and, having beat in the doors, furioufly murdered both father and fon, enfolded in mutual embraces.

'Thus it was that Vladimir thought to honour the gods. The zealous Olga had never been able to induce her fon to embrace chriftianity, and her grandfon Vladimir was of all the Ruffian princes the moft bigoted to idolatry. He augmented the number of the idols of Kief; he commiffioned Dobryna, his uncle by the mother's fide, to to raife a fuperb ftatue at Novgorod to the deity Perune; his offerings enriched both the temples and the prieffs of his gods, while his zeal inflamed that of the nation. But the grandeur of the Ruffian monarch was already fo confpicuous, as to ftrike the eyes of the neighbouring princes. All of them courted the friendfhip of Vladimir, and dreaded his arms: each was in hopes of fixing his attachment by the ties of one common religion. Accordingly he received, at almoft the fame time, deputies from the Pope, or rather from fome catholic prince who wifhed to attract him to the church of Rome; perfons from great Bulgaria, exhorting him to embrace the doctrines of Mahhammed; and, it is even faid, that fome Jews, eftablifhed among the Kozares, came to expound to him the law of Mofes. But none of thefe deputies had any fuccefs. A miffion more fortunate was that of a Greek, whom the chronicles call a philofopher, and yet perhaps he was not one. If he did not induce Vladimir to embrace the Greek ritual, at leaft he fucceeded in making him think favourably of it, and returned to his country loaded with prefents.

'The difcourfe of the Greek had made a lively impreffion on the mind of the prince; and, defirous of gaining farther information concerning the various fyftems of faith of which the miffionary had fpoken while recommending his own, he difpatched ten perfons, in high reputation for wifdom, to obferve in the countries where each was profeffed, the principles and the rites of thefe different religions.

'Thefe men repaired firft to the Bulgarians, eaftward of Ruffia, but they were not very fenfibly ftruck with the devotion of the Manichees, or the Mohammedan worfhip: thence they proceeded to Germany, coldly confidered the ceremonies as performed by fome vulgar prieffs in taudry trappings in the poor latin churches there, and could take no intereft in a fect which fhewed fo little magnificence, with its motley round of unmeaning geftiCulations in its offices of worfhip. But when thefe barbarian fages were

arriv-

arrived at Conſtantinople, when they ſaw the impoſing ſplendor of religious adoration, amid the gorgeous decorations in the proud baſilicum of St Sophia, they felt immediately touched by celeſtial grace, and confeſſed that the people whoſe religion diſplayed ſuch pomp muſt have the ſole poſſeſſion of the true belief.

'Their imagination ſtill heated with the pompous ſpectacle of which they had been the aſtoniſhed beholders, they returned to Vladimir, ſpeaking with ſcorn of the latin ceremonial, and deſcribing with enthuſiaſm what they had ſeen in the imperial city. They thought themſelves, they ſaid, tranſported into the ſkies, and requeſted permiſſion to return to Conſtantinople to receive the initiatory ſacrament into ſo magnificent a religion.

'The grandeur of their recital made an impreſſion on Vladimir. The boyars of his council, who eaſily read what was paſſing in his mind, exclaimed, that the Greek religion muſt unqueſtionably be the true one, ſince the wiſe deputies had extolled it ſo much; and that, if it had not been the beſt, ſo prudent a princeſs as Olga would never have embraced it.*

'Theſe arguments determined Vladimir to be baptiſed. But unfortunately he had no Greek prieſts at hand. To aſk them of the Emperor was a ſort of homage, at the very idea of which his haughty ſoul revolted. He conceived a project worthy of his times, of his country, or perhaps only of himſelf: it was to commence a war againſt Greece, and by force of arms to extort inſtruction, prieſts, and the rite of baptiſm.

'No ſooner had he formed the deſign than he prepared for its execution, raiſed a formidable army, ſelected from all nations of which his empire was compoſed, and repaired to the Cherſoneſe, under the walls of Theodoſia, now called Kaffa. If we give credit to one chronicle, he put up this prayer: "O God, grant me thy help to take this town, that I may carry from it chriſtians and prieſts to inſtruct me and my people, and convey the true religion into my dominions!" He laid ſiege to the city, deſtroyed the adverſaries, loſt a great number of his ſoldiers, and thouſands of men were deſtroyed, becauſe a barbarian would not ſuffer himſelf to be chriſtened like an ordinary perſon.

'However, after carrying on the ſiege for ſix months, Vladimir had made no progreſs: he was even threatened with being obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and was in great danger of never becoming a chriſtian. But a traitorous citizen, according to ſome it was a prieſt, tied a letter to an arrow, and ſhot it from the top of the ramparts. The Ruſſians learnt by this paper, that behind their camp was a ſpring, which by ſubterraneous pipes was the ſole ſupply of freſh water to the beſieged. Vladimir ordered this ſource to be ſought out: it was found; and, by breaking theſe channels, ſubjected the town to the horrors of thirſt, and forced it to ſurrender. Being in poſſeſſion of Theodoſia, he was maſter of the whole Cherſoneſe.

'In conſequence of this victory, it was in his own choice to receive baptiſm in the manner he deſired. But this ſacrament was not the ſole object of his ambition: he aſpired to an union by the ties of blood with the Cæſars of Byzantium. As was the caſe with moſt of the princes who adopted chriſtianity, ſo here political reaſons had at leaſt an equal influence with devotion; and when Vladimir was baptiſed at Korſun, a town at Greece, in 988, and married Anna, the ſiſter of the Grecian Sovereign, it was as much his intention by this match to acquire a claim upon the Grecian Empire, as by his baptiſm to have pretenſions on the kingdom of heaven.'—

'Vladimir then liſtened to ſome catechetical lectures, received the rite of baptiſm and the name of Baſil, married the princeſs Anna, reſtored to his brothers-in-law the conqueſts he had recently

* This ſtory, in conformity with the chronicles, is not therefore the leſs doubtful. In a Greek MS. belonging to the Colbertine library, publiſhed by Bandurius, the ſame facts are related at the reign of Baſilius the Macedonian. Thus it would relate to the converſion of Oſkhold and Dir, in whom the firſt dynaſty of the ſovereigns of Kief ended. We have ſeen that this converſion had but little influence on Ruſſia, which in fact did not become chriſtian till after the baptiſm of Vladimir.

recently made, and brought off no other reward of his victories than ſome archimandrites and popes, ſacred veſſels and church-books, images of ſaints and conſecrated relics.

'At his return to Kief, his mind was wholly intent on overthrowing the idols which but lately were the object of his adoration. As Perune was the greateſt of deities to the idolatrous Ruſſians, it was him that Vladimir, after his converſion, reſolved to treat with the greateſt ignominy. He had him tied to the tail of a horſe, dragged to the Boryſthenes, and all the way twelve vigorous ſoldiers, with great cudgels, beat the deified log, which was afterwards thrown into the river. Nothing can more ſtrongly mark the character of Vladimir than his conduct, alike brutiſh in worſhipping a miſhapen block, and in thinking to puniſh the inſenſible maſs for the adoration he had laviſhed upon it.—

'People in a low ſtate of civilization have too few ideas for acquiring a ſtrong attachment to any religion. Thus the Ruſſians eaſily abandoned the worſhip of their idols: for, though Vladimir cauſed it to be publiſhed that thoſe who ſhould perſevere in idolatry ſhould be ragarded as enemies of Chriſt and of the prince, it does not appear that Ruſſia underwent any perſecutions, and yet it ſoon became Chriſtian: of ſuch force was the example of the ſovereign. At Kief he one day iſſued a proclamation ordering all the inhabitants to repair the next morning to the banks of the river to be baptized; which they joyfully obeyed. "If it be not good to be baptized," ſaid they, "the prince and the boyars would never ſubmit to it."—

'Such a change was wrought in Vladimir afterwards in this and many others reſpects, that the hiſtorians of that time are at a loſs for words ſufficiently ſtrong to expreſs their admiration of it. If before he had, beſides five wives and eight hundred concubines*, taken alſo women and girls wherever he would, yet after his baptiſm he contented himſelf with his chriſtian ſpouſe alone.—If as a conqueror he had cauſed many drops of innocent blood to be ſhed, and ſet a very low value on the life of a man, yet, having adopted the religion of Jeſus, he felt uneaſy at ſentencing one highway robber to death, of whom there were many at that time; and, as we read in the chronicles, exclaimed with emotion on ſuch an occaſion, "What am I that I ſhould condemn a fellow-creature to death?" As his delight had been before in ſtorming towns and obtaining battles, he now found his greateſt pleaſure in building churches and endowing ſchools.'

Mr Tooke certainly deſerves our praiſe for the induſtry with which he has performed the drudgery of ſearching into the various ſources of Ruſſian hiſtory, and collecting the moſt intereſting materials. While, however, we commend him for this quality, we cannot but regret that, in ſeveral inſtances, he manifeſts careleſſneſs of ſtyle and adopts a phraſeology which are excuſable only in the rapidity of familiar converſation, and are altogether unbecoming the dignity of hiſtory, or the leiſure of deliberate compoſition. Independently of theſe objections, and of a few common place obſervations which we find interſperſed, a peruſal of this work will afford both entertainment and information.

The Puniſhments of China: Illuſtrated by Twenty-Two Engravings: with Explanations in Engliſh and French. Royal Quarto. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Miller.

THOUGH the ſubjects of this work cannot be pleaſing, yet a conſiderable degree of curioſity may be attached to them.

The Author obſerves, that the Chineſe code of penal laws is compiled in ſuch a manner as to have a puniſhment appropriated for every crime. A ſeries of theſe is diſplayed in the following plates. He remarks,

'The wiſdom of the Chineſe Legiſlature is no where more conſpicuous than in its treatment of robbers, no perſon being doomed to ſuffer death for having merely deprived another of ſome temporal property, provided he neither uſes any offenſive weapon. This ſagacious edict renders robbery unfrequent; the daring violator of the laws,

* Might it not be partly from this reſemblance that he obtained the name of Solomon.

laws, hesitating to take with him those means, which might preserve his own life, or affect that of the plundered, in the event of resistance, generally confines his depredations to acts of private pilfering; and a robbery, attended with murder, is, of course, very rarely perpetrated. This instance of justice, moderation, and wisdom, in the laws of China, receives an unfavourable contrast in the decree, which pronounces the wearing of a particular ornament to be a capital crime; and in the custom of attending to the fallacious information extorted by the rack.

'Various writers have mentioned other punishments in addition to those represented in this publication, of a much severer nature, which have been inflicted by the Chinese upon criminals, convicted of regicide, parricide, rebellion, treason, or sedition; but drawings, or even verbal descriptions of these, would be committing an indecorous violence on the feelings, and inducing us to arraign the temperance and wisdom, so universally acknowledged in the government of China.

'Exclusively of their novelty and information, the principal recommendations possessed by representations of this nature, arise from the sensation of security, which they produce in those bosoms that heave upon a tract of the globe, where they are protected from being torn by lengthened agonies: where a person's innocence is not estimated by his mental or corporal powers of enduring pain: where tyranny, fanaticism, or anarchy, cannot exercise their demoniacal propensities for cruelty: where capital punishment is only instituted and permitted as a necessary link in the chain of social order, to deter the evil-minded from committing outrages against their fellow-creatures, and to debar the offender from the power of perpetrating farther wrong. These intentions are fully answered by publicly depriving the malefactor of his existence, which is effected, in England, in a manner the most instantaneous and least sanguinary, that a compassionate people could adopt; and whose natural intrepidity is further manifested by this attention to the pangs of suffering humanity.'

The plates in this volume represent the following objects:

1. A culprit before a magistrate.
2. A culprit conveyed to prison.
3. A culprit conducted to trial.
4. An offender undergoing the bastinade.
5. Twisting a man's ears.
6. Punishment of the swing.
7. Punishing a boatman.
8. Punishing an interpreter.
9. The rack.
10. Torturing the fingers.
11. Burning a man's eyes with lime!
12. A malefactor chained to an iron bar.
13. Punishment of the wooden collar.
14. A man fastened to a block of wood.
15. A malefactor in a cage!
16. Punishment of a wooden tube.
17. Hamstringing a malefactor!
18. Close confinement.
19. Conducting an offender into banishment.
20. A malefactor conducted to execution.
21. The capital punishment of the chord; (or strangling.)
22. The manner of beheading.

The account of the first plate, is instructive and unobjectionable:

"It is the custom in China, for a Mandarin of justice to administer it daily, morning and evening, in his own house, where he is attended by his secretary, or clerk, and by inferior officers, some of them bearing iron shackles, and others, pan-flees*. Upon his right-hand stands the prosecutor, or informer; and before him is a table with a covering of silk, and the implements of writing for the secretary to take down the depositions and defence. These having been written in black ink, the magistrate signs them with red, and seals them with the same colour. On the table there are, also a number of small sticks, tipped with red; these are kept in open cases, and are used in the following manner: If a culprit is convicted of a petty offence, the magistrate causes him to be immediately chastised and released. The usual punishment on such occasions, is the pan-flee, or bastinade, and the number of blows to be inflicted is signified by the magistrate's casting

* *Pan-flee* is a thick piece of split bamboo cane, the lower end of which is about four inches in width and the upper end small and smooth, to render the instrument more convenient for the hand. It is used to inflict the punishment of the bastinade.

some

ſome of the above-mentioned ſmall ſticks upon the floor: each ſtick denotes five blows. The culprit, who, during the examination, has awaited the decree upon his hands and knees, is then ſeized by the attendants, and puniſhed. After the magiſtrate has thrown the ſticks, he talks of other affairs, drinks his tea, or ſmokes his tobacco.

"It is only for trivial breaches of the Chineſe laws, ſuch as drunkenneſs, cheating, ſquabbling, boxing, pilfering, inſolence or inattention towards a ſuperior, or the like, that any magiſtrate is empowered to adminiſter puniſhment in a ſummary manner. Whenever the crime is of ſuch a deſcription as to call for ſeverer notice, it is generally examined into by five or ſix tribunals, who not only require very particular information concerning the charge, but ſcrutinize with minute exactneſs into the characters and manners of the accuſers.

"Their proceedings in capital accuſations are thus protracted in China, leſt any man ſhould be unjuſtly deprived of the ineſtimable benefits of honour or life: and no criminal can be executed until his trial has been ſent to court, and his ſentence has been confirmed by the Emperor."

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Theology.

Nuptiæ Sacræ, or an Inquiry into the Scriptural Doctrine of Marriage and Divorce. Addreſſed to the Two Houſes of Parliament. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Wright.

Village Sermons; or plain and ſhort Diſcourſes on the principal Doctrines of the Goſpel, intended for the Uſe of Families, Sunday-Schools, or Companies aſſembled for Religious Inſtruction in Country Villages. By George Burder. 4 vols. 12mo. 4s. 6d. ſewed. Chapman. 1800.

Agriculture.

A Comparative Statement of the Food produced from Arable and Graſs Land, and the returns ariſing from each; with Obſervations on the late Incloſures, and the probable Effect of a General Act for Incloſing Commons or Waſtes, Heaths, &c. Together with other Matters. By the Rev. Luke Heſlop, Archdeacon of Bucks. 4to. 2s. Reynolds.

In extreme eagerneſs to apply a remedy to exiſting evils, we ſpeculate very ſuperficially on the cauſe of them, and often ſubſtitute report and popular notions in the room of information. This has been the caſe during the preſent ſcarcity; and few men have been ſufficiently judicious and diſpaſionate, to detect the glaring errors which have floated on the ſtream of public opinion. Mr Heſlop, however, is one of thoſe diſcerning few, and has more than intimated that "our very wiſh," reſpecting incloſures is not likely "to give us our wiſh."

Mr H. mentions a curious fact relative to incloſures, which ought to arreſt the public attention. He remarks that, 'in matters of high importance, to proceed upon experience rather than ſpeculation, is true wiſdom. And from a review of this diſtrict (the parts of Buckinghamſhire below the Chiltern hills) and of thoſe favourable to graſs, to which my obſervations have extended, it appears, that in ſeveral pariſhes which have been *long incloſed*, an acre of arable land is not to be found; in others, the quantity is extremely ſmall; and not ſufficient in any, I apprehend, to ſupply ſeed and food for the inhabitants, though the quantity of arable land, prior to the incloſures, might be eſtimated, on the average, at about two-thirds of the whole open fields.'

Mr Heſlop is of opinion that incloſures operate as a temptation to farmers to avoid the endleſs toils and expences of tillage, and to convert their arable land into paſture. Open fields are certainly preferable for the growth of corn; and if it be the wiſh of the legiſlature to make this a corn country, Mr H.'s hints and queries, as to the operation of a General Incloſure Act, will not be diſregarded. M. R.

Law.

General Opinions on the Conduct of Miniſters, with reſpect to the paſt and preſent ſtate of Ireland, and inculcating the Juſtice and Policy of Catholic Emancipation. By Thomas Townſhend, Eſq; Barriſter at Law, and a Member of the Iriſh Parliament. 8vo. 3s. Debrett.

We have remarked conſiderable proofs of intelligence and information in this production; though it appears

to

to us that the author is not unfrequently precipitate in his concluſions, and by turns obſcure and declamatory in his ſtyle. M. R.

Thoughts on Parliamentary Reform, and on Reform in general: in which the Nature of the Britiſh Conſtitution, the Government, its component Parts, and Eſtabliſhments, &c. &c. are freely but briefly conſidered. By an Ex-member of the preſent Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

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POETRY.

ODE

FOR HIS MAJESTY'S BIRTH DAY.

BY H. J. PYE, ESQ; POET LAUREAT.

STILL, ſtill muſt war's diſcordant note
Usurp the muſe's votive lay;
Muſt the ſhrill clarion's brazen throat
Proclaim our monarch's natal day.

While the fierce foe, with haughty brow,
Frowns on the olive's ſacred bough;
Throws from his hand the proffer'd gift of peace,
Nor bids the raging ſtorm of deſolation ceaſe?

O Britain! not from abject fear,
Or pale miſtruſt, or weaken'd pow'r,

Springs in thy breaſt the vow ſincere,
Which woos fair concord's lenient hour.
Uncheck'd by threats of vengeful foes,
Thy breaſt with warlike ardour glows;
Thy ſons, with unabated force,
Right onward keep their daring courſe;
The chief who, from Canopus' ſultry ſhore,
The burning meed of conqueſt bore,
Now through the Baltic's freezing ſurge,
Bids his bold prows their way reſiſtleſs urge;
And, while Britannia's enſign flies
Aloft in Hyperborean ſkies,
Denmark, aſtoniſh'd, from her threaten'd tow'rs,
Yields up her naval boaſt to Albion's happier pow'rs.

And lo! where Philip's mightier ſon
Bade the proud city's riſing walls proclaim,
To diſtant times their founder's name,
Freſh trophies by Britannia's legions won;
When, from the vet'ran bands of Gallia's ſhore,
Their dauntleſs arms, the blood-ſtain'd banner tore
Which, like a baleful meteor ſpread,
To fields of death th' enfuriate warriors led;
Yet, 'mid the deeds of endleſs fame,
Shall not a tear the dying victor claim?
No; o'er his tomb, with guardian wings
Hov'ring, th' eternal Pæan glory ſings,
Chaunting, with note triumphant, to the ſkies,
"His name thro' ages lives who for his
"country dies!"

Enough of war!—while Britain ſees
Before Hygeia's healing band,
The pallid dæmon of diſeaſe
Lead far away her ſickly hand;
While to a nation's fervent pray'r,
The arm omnipotent to ſpare,
Gives her ador'd, her patriot Lord,
Again to life, to health reſtor'd,
To hail that day to Britain dear,
Selected from the circling year,
Which fame ſhall ever mark the birth
Of regal duty and of private worth;
Strains that affection forms, that tranſport breathes,
The fragrant off'rings join that June ambroſial wreathes.

For the Scots Magazine.

SONG.

Tune—Twine weel the plaiden.

HOW, laſſie, has your hand ſae faſt,
My boſom made ſae bizzy?
How has your eye, ſae blue and daft,
Contriv'd to mak me dizzy?
Had I the glances of your eye,
Had I the touch to chear thee;
A' day thy thought ſhould rin on me,
A' night my form be near thee.

Now, by thy lips, ſo cherry red,
And by that look ſo tender,
I wad na' gie' the looks o' thee,
For a' that wealth could render:
Does but your fondneſs equal mine,
The ſun from morn to e'en,
Will ne'er, in a' his journey ſhine,
On fondneſs ſae agreein'.

Around us birks and hazels hang,
And birds are ſinging cheary;
Give thou mair muſic to their ſang,
And tell me I'm thy dearie.
O ſpeak and quiet chill alarms,
Give rapture to my wiſhes;
And let me claſp thee in my arms,
My bleſſing on your bluſhes!

For the Scots Magazine.

THE JOLLY MILLER.

THERE was a jolly miller once,
Liv'd on the river Dee,
He work'd, he ſang, from morn to night,
No lark ſo blyth as he;
And this the burden of his ſong,
For ever us'd to be,
I care for nobody, no not I,
If nobody care for me.

I've ſeen a friend, I've ſeen him ſmile,
For why? my ale was ſtout:
I've ſeen him lour, I've ſeen him frown;
For why? the can was out.
Round goes the mill, for me it goes,
My work and I agree;
I care for nobody, no not I,
If nobody care for me.

Let dukes and lords enjoy their ſtate,
Let daſhing ſquires be gay;
Let miſers grin o'er hoarded wealth,
And ſpendthrifts throw't away.
Too oft the imps of care and pain,
To wealth and ſplendour flee;
I care for nobody, no not I,
If nobody care for me.

With independent labour bleſt,
For me round goes the mill;
The man I love is he who dares
Be poor and honeſt ſtill.
'Tis induſtry that heals the ſad,
Or keeps from ſorrow free;
I care for nobody, no not I,
If nobody care for me.

For

For the Scots Magazine.

A SONG.

" *Qui muſas amat impares,*
" *Ternoster Cyatho attonitus petet*
" *Vates—Tres prohibet ſupra,*
" *Rixarum metuens tangere gratia.*"
Hor. Lib. 3. Ode 19.

COME ye jovial ſons of joy,
Here's the ſhorteſt road to bliſs;
Now let mirth our thoughts employ,
No enjoyment's like to this.

Women ſtill are faithleſs found,
But good wine will ne'er betray;
Search the paths to pleaſure round,
Drinking is the ſhorteſt way.

Let th' admirers of the graces,
Court each art to pleaſe the fair;
Wine, they ſay, will fluſh their faces,
Mirth will ſpoil their placid air.

Ye who ſcorn ſuch idle arts,
Briſkly puſh the bottle round;
Soon ſhall fancy fire our hearts,
And each aching care be drown'd.

Sober dotards oft will tell us,
Let a glaſs or two ſuffice;
No, ye fools;—we jovial fellows,
Are too happy to be wiſe.

Quickly let the bottle paſs.
Send a poet's ſhare of wine;
Every Muſe ſhall have a glaſs,
And my Nancy *nine* times *nine*.

For the Scots Magazine.

VERSES ON FRIENDSHIP,

By a Lady,

On receiving a flower in a flowerpot from a Friend.

FRIENDSHIP ſo ſacred, ſeldom found below,
Adds value to thoſe gifts it may beſtow.
Matilda, from a ſweet ſequeſter'd bower,
Bore in her hand to me, this fragrant flower.
Blow, blow ſweet flower, thy glowing leaves unfold,
And emulate the hue of precious gold:
Than gold more precious friendſhip proves to man,
More difficult to gain ſince time began.
Can fortune's gems, one faithful friend obtain,
Or peace of mind beſtow, alleviate pain.
Friendſhip, with virtuous ſentiments refin'd,
Soars far above the ſelfiſh ſordid mind.
Blow, blow ſweet flower, thy foliage blooming gay,
I, with delight, will tend from day to day;
And when the radiant ſun ſhall warmth beſtow,
His ardent rays ſhall on thy verdure glow:
When he withdraws, on thee ſhall gently gleam,
The moon's pale orb, with ſofter ſilver beam.
Zephyrs ſhall fawn, refreſhing dews deſcend,
From chilling blaſts, thy bloom I will defend;
Will ſafely ſhelter from the tempeſt rude,
With aſſiduity and gratitude.

Edin. May 1801.

PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS.

To the Editor of the Scots Magazine.

SIR,

HAVING been an admirer of theatrical amuſements from a very early period of my life, I have occaſionally given ſtrictures on the performances at our Theatre for theſe five years paſt; theſe obſervations were publiſhed in the Scots Chronicle; but, as I underſtand that newſpaper is now given up, and as you have done me the honour of copying ſome of my letters into your uſeful magazine, I at preſent addreſs you on the ſubject of our theatricles, in caſe you ſhould ſtill conſider theſe trifles as worthy of your notice.

On Saturday the houſe opened for our *Racing* Campaign, with the SCHOOL FOR SCANDAL, *Charles* by MR TALBOT, (of many Theatres,) and *Lady Teazle* by MISS BIGGS, from Drury-Lane: and laſt night the ſame performers played *Ranger* and *Clarinda*, in the SUSPICIOUS HUSBAND.

To decry the merits of any performer, is not my wiſh; I want ſubjects deſerving praiſe, which, to a mind capable of feeling, muſt afford a thouſand times more ſatisfaction than cenſure, whoever may be the object of it, or in whatever way it may be expreſſed, but criticiſm muſt become uſeleſs, if truth is not the guide.

MR TALBOT has been unlucky in

having certain "trumpet tongued" panygerists, holding him as second to no actor on the stage, John Kemble and Mr Lewis excepted: nay, it was even said, that his merit was so great, as to have determined those in power, to discharge him from Drury-Lane, some time ago, least he should have out-shined their favourite hero; and it was also asserted, that the manager of Covent Garden would not engage him, least, like Jack Rugby, he had followed too hard upon his heels. This gentleman's puffers little thought, I suppose, that they were thus, by false praise, damning the performer whom they meant to support.

Mr Talbot's figure is both vulgar and disproportioned; his eyes are not inexpressive, but his features are unmeaning and immoveable; he has confidence enough, but his gestures are *outre*, are often inapplicable to the business of the scene, and are evidently a faint attempt to copy Lewis, even in his faults; his voice is thin, and, in many of his tones, he endeavours also to imitate Mr Knight. With these imperfections I need scarcely add, that his Charles and Ranger were much below mediocrity, having neither the ease, pleasantry, or plausibility of these volatile rakes. I hear he is next to try the Buskin, when Cooke pays us a visit, which, it is said, he is to do in a few days. If so, I shall perhaps trouble you with another letter.

Miss Brees seems a smart, lively, agreeable actress; and, if we could forget Mrs Bulkely and Miss Farren, might go well down as Lady Teazle and Clarinda. She, however, has now got a considerable reputation in this line of acting, and had indeed much merit in some of the scenes, with both Sir Peter and Joseph; but it was obvious her Clarinda was the most finished performance, the Lady being more in character as a city, than a rural, coquette.

I formerly noticed Rock in *Sir Peter Teazle*, and I think he is even still improving.

Mr Woods played *Joseph Surface* with his usual abilities; but I cannot for my soul divine, why he, or any actor of such respectability, who has so long had the ear of the public, should suffer himself to be treated as he has been since November last. Without any ceremony, he was lately deprived of this character, which was given to an actor scarcely fit for Rowley or Snake; and yet, the moment that performer leaves us, he is again popped in for this selfish hypocrite; a behaviour he certainly ought not to put up with, either from the present or any other manager.

For the remainder of the *Dramatis Personæ* now palmed on us, it is far beyond my pen, or that of any other person's, I believe, to describe their wretchedness; females, in almost immediate want of *accoucheurs*, are set on for widows of gallantry, and girls under age: Old dangling beaus, and pert blockheads, personate young men of fashion! Such usage of the town, I trust, will not pass in silence; gratitude for the vast encouragement given by the public, during a longer season than usual, should have dictated a very different conduct on the part of the managers. Unless it was with the view of deceiving the public by means of new names, they ought not to have deprived us of the very great abilities of Young, Miss Waltein, and Miss Duncan; but I imagine the receipts of the house will shew them, that such little mean attempts at imposition will not succeed; but that, on the contrary, "their crime will carry the punishment along with it." I am yours, &c.

Timothy Plain.

Edinr. June 30. 1801.

SECOND

SECOND REPORT of the SECRET COMMITTEE of the House of Commons.

THE Committee of Secrecy of the Houſe of Commons have at length made their ſecond report, and in doing ſo they have entered into a conſideration of a variety of minute details relative to the plans of the diſaffected, both in this country and in Ireland. The report embraces ſuch enlarged deſcriptions of the plans of diſaffection in both countries, that our limits permit us only to preſent a general outline of their ſtatements.

The report begins by detailing the plans of the diſaffected in the metropolis of the kingdom, and goes on to refer to the different ſchemes which they formed for the accompliſhment of their favourite views. It ſtates that, though in conſequence of the meaſures adopted by Government, the perſons who had imbibed the principles of revolution were diſpoſed to ſuſpend their former projects, yet they never for a moment wholly renounced their former principles, or felt any deſire to return to their duties of loyalty and ſubjection. Notwithſtanding the detention of ſeveral of the moſt active members of the late Correſponding Society, it appears that others have continued occaſionally to meet for the original purpoſes of this aſſociation, at the ſame time avoiding any conſtant place of aſſembling, and uſing no conſtant memorial of their tranſactions.

The principal object of their meetings was originally held out to be, the collection of money for the relief of thoſe confined under charges of treaſonable and ſeditious practices, while under this pretext, they gradually proceeded to indulge in the moſt treaſonable and ſeditious toaſts and ſongs. In the proſecution of theſe views, it is found, that they endeavoured to avail themſelves of the ſtate to which the country was reduced in conſequence of the preſſure of ſcarcity; and to endeavour to combine this evil with the general corruptions of the Government. From the metropolis they proceeded to trace the ſame ſpirit to the diſtricts of the country, in which various means were uſed to connect the miſery of ſcarcity with the ſuppoſed evils of adminiſtration, and to reduce the loyalty of the people from the preſſure of temporary circumſtances; on this part of the ſubject the Committee detail a variety of particulars, in which all the views and ſchemes of the diſaffected are minutely explained; a particular alluſion is made to the expiration of the bill for ſuſpending the Habeas Corpus act, and a ſtatement is given of the pleaſure diffuſed over the party by the expiration of the bill, as well as the meaſures adopted during the period that the act continued in force. The ſchemes of the diſaffected during this period, it appears, were endeavoured to be covered under the name of meetings convened "in a free eaſy manner, which, without encumbering themſelves with rules, were to converſe on the ſubject recommended to them, and to provoke inveſtigation." In the courſe of theſe meetings, it is ſaid, that a number of toaſts were propoſed and received with acclamation, which were of the moſt ſeditious and inflammatory nature. At the ſame period addreſſes were prepared for circulation, exciting in the moſt earneſt terms the inhabitants of the country to the aſſertion of their rights, and the annihilation of what is ſtyled the ſyſtem of tyranny under which they groaned. The adminiſtration of ſecret oaths of a nature hoſtile to the exiſtence of the preſent monarchy is alſo pointed out, and the circulation of ſuch oaths is ſtated to have reached a very conſiderable extent of individuals. Nor do the Committee think that the efforts of the diſaffected were confined to perſons in this country, but ſuppoſe that they maintained a treaſonable correſpondence with our common enemy, ſolicited their aſſiſtance to the accompliſhment of their great object, and held out to them at the ſame time the "hopes of a formidable co-operation from internal inſurrection."

The attention of the Committee is next directed "to the ſituation of Ireland, as diſturbed within and threatened from without, particularly with reference to thoſe meaſures adopted by the Parliament of that kingdom before the Union, before the ſuppreſſion of the rebellion, and which have been ſince renewed, for a limited time in the Parliament of the United kingdom." In this part of the report, though they remark that the efforts of the diſaffected

have

have long ſince happily ceaſed to aſſume the aſpect of rebellion, arrayed in the field againſt the arms of their Sovereign, and that many parts of the kingdom preſent the uſual appearances of peaceful induſtry and loyal ſubordination, yet there is not wanting in others demonſtrations of the ſame plan of ſyſtematic inſurrection, and theſe too marked with the ſame characters of unexampled atrocity. The zeal of the principal "traitors in Dublin," in ſending their emiſſaries through the country to keep up the ſpirits of the diſaffected, by the hopes of ſupport from foreign invaſion, are particularly inſiſted upon and explained. About a year ſince, it is mentioned that a new ſyſtem of aſſociation was about to be eſtabliſhed, and a new Executive Directory formed in Dublin. The manner in which this was to be effected, is deſcribed both in ſo far as it reſpects the appointment of the officers and the privates connected with ſuch aſſociations. This ſcheme, however, in conſequence of the vigilance and activity of Government, was defeated. Efforts were employed to detach Ireland from the intereſts of the Government of this country; hopes were held out to its diſaffected inhabitants, of the probable ſucceſs of foreign invaſion, as well as the proſpect of a general inſurrection in all the principal towns of this kingdom. Even the fidelity of our ſailors is attempted to be withdrawn, and the various addreſſes iſſued for this purpoſe are particularly ſpecified. The accredited emiſſaries of the Iriſh Committee it appears, have been ſent to France, with aſſurances of their deſiring aſſiſtance to throw off the yoke that binds them. In particular, one individual in this capacity, is ſaid "to have paſſed over to the continent, to have opened a direct communication with the enemy, accrediting himſelf as being deputed by a great body of the landed intereſt of the country, whom he repreſents as being, like himſelf, ſo diſſatisfied with the Union, that they would engage in any effort, in concert with France, to procure the means of eſtabliſhing, under its guarantee, ſome new form of repreſentative Government." This ſyſtem of radical diſaffection is connected with a ſyſtem of terror, accompanied with practices of the moſt ſavage cruelty. The oſtenſible objects to which theſe outrages are directed, "are now more commonly directed in an oſtenſible manner to the lowering of rents, the abolition of tithes, the regulation of wages, and the price of proviſions, rather than thoſe of an alteration in the form and Conſtitution of Government." The counteraction of this ſyſtem, it is alleged, "could not be effected by the regular courſe of law, affording only periodical occaſions of trial, yielding no effectual means for protecting the witneſſes from ſeduction, or the jurymen from outrage, and could only be ſecured by the apprehenſion of prompt and efficacious puniſhment for the guilty, and the ſenſe of ſecurity and protection for the innocent."

The report afterwards goes on to the detail of the other means employed by the diſaffected for the accompliſhment of their purpoſes; their ſcenes of cruelty and outrage are delineated in terms calculated to impreſs on the mind the neceſſity of a juriſdiction more vigorous than that of the ordinary procedure of law—a juriſdiction calculated to meet the circumſtances of the moment with an adequate force, ſpirit, and energy. The ſentences regularly pronounced on the loyal inhabitants are ſtated, and a number of caſes are adverted to where theſe ſentences were literally executed and enforced. Theſe ſeveral ſtatements the Committee ſubſtantiate by an appendix, ſubjoined to the report, in which each of the facts is more or leſs circumſtantially explained.

IMPERIAL

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

State of the Nation.

March 25. *Mr Grey* roſe, in purſuance of the notice he had formerly given, to bring forward his motion on the ſtate of the nation, notice of which had been given by him ſo often, and which he ſo very reluctantly poſtponed. He felt, however, that the cauſes of thoſe delays never had exiſted with himſelf; on the contrary, he was ſo ſolicitous that his motion ſhould come on, and that when the diſcuſſion ſhould take place, every attention ſhould be manifeſted on his part to a clear elucidation of the various topics he meant to touch upon. The avowed object of the war was the reſtoration of the Royal Family of France; or (he would put that out of the queſtion) rather to reſtrain the power and check the aggrandiſement of that nation. Mark the reſult; at the end of a nine years war, we find the power of France greater than the moſt extravagant ideas could poſſibly have made it. We find France reſpected by all Europe, except Great Britain, as a power from whoſe friendſhip every thing may be gained, but from whoſe enmity every thing may be dreaded. We find that our allies have, one by one, deſerted us, and "our great and magnanimous ally" at this moment in a formidable coalition againſt us. If we turn our eyes to the ſituation of Great Britain, if we contraſt that ſituation nine years ago with its preſent, humanity will be appalled, and virtue will ſhudder at its danger. We are now reduced to the deplorable ſtate of acting upon the defenſive, inſtead of being an offenſive enemy. Theſe facts undoubtedly called for inveſtigation. Enquiry ought to be inſtituted into thoſe cauſes which had reduced this once glorious people to ſuch diſtreſs. The wound which had been given ought to be probed to the bottom, and the inflictors of that wound ought to be called to an account for their miſconduct. A Right Hon. gentleman oppoſite to him, who had been the greateſt promoter of the war, had always ſaid, that when an opportunity offered, he ſhould negociate for peace. That opportunity had occurred, but the overtures made by the Chief Conſul of France had been rejected with contumely, and treated with diſdain. For ſuch conduct he ſaw no reaſon, and he truſted that a candid and explicit declaration of the reaſons which induced the then miniſters to reject thoſe overtures would be given before the houſe broke up. The Right Hon. Gentleman had alſo repeatedly ſaid, that the preſent war had been eminently ſucceſsful. This he could not underſtand. Compare the motives which are the cauſe of the war, and compare the motives which are the cauſe of its continuance, and let any man prove, if he can, that the war has been ſucceſsful. He ſhould ſhow that it had been unſucceſsful in almoſt every enterprize which had been undertaken. It has been ſaid, that victory gives ſecurity: he would only aſk, Where was the ſecurity of this country? Any partial ſucceſſes we have experienced have been more than balanced by the diſgraces we have endured. The principles upon which the late miniſters entered into the war, were unjuſt to a degree. He ſhould not now repeat them: they were in the breaſt of every man who had the intereſt, welfare, and indeperdence of Great Britain at heart. He blamed the principles of the war, as impoſing and dictating terms and forms of government to a people, who ought to have been treated with more reſpect. All our conqueſts in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies were of no ſervice to this country, as each country took away a part of our domeſtic force, which (ſince the war had been gone into) ought to have been employed in Europe. It ought to have been employed in defence of our own ſhores; in place of which additional burthens are impoſed to ſupport the armed aſſociations. Here Mr Grey took a review of the war, and reprobated the conduct of Miniſters. He ſaid, that an inquiry ought to be inſtituted into the conduct of the old adminiſtration; were that inquiry fully gone into, he was convinced a vote of high cenſure would

would paſs upon their conduct. This might probably have a good effect upon the new adminiſtration, by affording them a leſſon—that the country was not to be abuſed with impunity, nor the ſocial compact to be violated at pleaſure. A vote of cenſure upon the late adminiſtration would convince the enemy, that the Houſe was deſirous of peace; and he believed, every real and genuine Britiſh ſubject would rejoice at ſuch a vote. With regard to the Northern Confederacy, he had, on a former occaſion, obſerved, that thoſe Powers were leagued together, in order to prevent veſſels from being ſearched. This coalition was founded upon the principle, that provided thoſe veſſels carry no contraband articles, no ſearch ſhall take place. He had alſo upon a former occaſion, recommended a line of moderation, but by no means derogatory from the national dignity. He conceived it to be a maxim in morals, as well as in politics, that the fundamental principle of all policy muſt be juſtice; had all our proceedings toward neutral nations been regulated by this principle, we ſhould not have been at preſent in a ſtate of war with thoſe nations. Their ſhips have been detained unjuſtly by our cruizers; innumerable complaints have been made upon this kind of proceeding by all the Northern Powers, until at laſt they have been driven to this extremity, and goaded, by the various inſults we have offered, to the means of retaliation and ſelf-defence. The right of ſearching neutrals generally terminated in the *ultima ratio regum*. It involved two queſtions, whether or no the goods were contraband or free: he put free goods entirely out of the queſtion. Where naval ſtores were deemed contraband, he was not exactly certain. The learned Judge of the Admiralty ſays, that they have only become contraband by being eſteemed ſo, although he did not know why, and that they have been eſteemed contraband by practice only. By our treaty with Ruſſia, naval ſtores were brought to this country ſince the war without interruption from French veſſels. He ſhould not dwell upon this point, as it would be very fully diſcuſſed in the ſequel of the debate. Denmark and Sweden could not ſend naval ſtores, but they could, and did ſend proviſions and grain to this country. No veſſel is allowed to enter a port when blockaded by our fleets; he had a very ſhort obſervation to make upon this ſyſtem—France has very little, if any, maritime commerce; but from the powerful aſcendancy ſhe has acquired on the continent, ſhe can extend her own internal commerce all over Europe. He had been informed, that this country carried on a trade direct with France; but this trade he condemned, as affording a means to France to be independent of Britiſh manufacture entirely. Mr Grey entered into a long detail of the various wars in which we had been engaged from 1600 downward, and contended, that the right of neutrals to enter a port in a ſtate of blockade never had been challenged. He then concluded by moving, "That the Houſe ſhould reſolve itſelf into a Committee of the whole Houſe, to take into conſideration the preſent State of the Nation."

Mr Dundas ſaid, that the Hon. Gentleman had gone into a very long detail of the military operations of the war, the failure of which had been attributed entirely to him, merely becauſe he had been War Miniſter, without once thinking, or taking into his conſideration, the various hazards which an army had to encounter. At all times, when ſubjects of that nature had been agitated in the Houſe, he had uniformly declared his inclination that his conduct ſhould be diſcuſſed. The Hon. Gentleman had gone far in ſtating, that the country was ruined and beggared by the late Miniſters, but upon this he ſhould afterward ſay a few words. No war can be carried on by this country unleſs we deſtroy the commerce and navigation of the enemy. If this is done, they are diſabled from meeting you. The deſtruction of their military force muſt depend upon the deſtruction of their commerce. No war can be carried on by this country unleſs we engage a part of our force upon the continent. He ſtated the conduct of this war as applicable to theſe principles. He admitted that the attempts which had been made upon Ferrol and Cadiz had failed; but he denied that the expedition to Holland had not been attended with ſucceſs; one of the objects of which was to

create a diverſion upon the Rhine in favour of our allies, had been attained; and had Sir Ralph Abercromby experienced ſuch weather as the ſeaſon of the year authoriſed him to expect, he would have been in poſſeſſion of Amſterdam, almoſt before the Dutch could know that the expedition was directed againſt Holland. Immediately after Sir Ralph left England, he was aſſailed by a moſt dreadful tempeſt, which kept him beating about within ſight of the coaſt, by which means the enemy was apprized of our deſign, and collected a numerous army from all quarters in order to oppoſe him. One important object had been attained. Ten ſail of the line had been brought away from Holland, and yet the Hon. Gentleman ſays, the expedition totally failed! Gentlemen would recollect that the army returned in October. The men were as yet unacquainted with their officers, and before the regiments could be brought out to exerciſe, the ſevere weather ſet in, and continued till March. The Hon. Gentleman blamed the Miniſters for delay in ſending off the reinforcements to our allies; but he muſt take all theſe circumſtances into conſideration, and he will find that no blame whatever can poſſibly be attached to the late Miniſters. This was a plain ſtatement of facts as they ſtood. The Hon. Gentleman, in mentioning all thoſe calamities, as he was pleaſed to call them, which had happened to our army, forgot entirely to mention the ſucceſſes of our navy, which had been ſplendid beyond any precedent in our hiſtory. Mr. Dundas then read a liſt of ſhips of the line, frigates, and other veſſels of war, which had been captured by the Britiſh navy during the war, and which amounted to upward of *thirteen hundred ſail* of different deſcriptions. If theſe captures were to be called partial ſucceſſes, he did not know what appellation the Hon. Gentleman might find for the moſt brilliant atchievements. Certain he was, that all the failures of our army, if failures they can be called, are more than compenſated by the courage, intrepidity, and ſucceſs of our marine. The various engagements which had taken place this war, between our fleets and thoſe of the enemy, had uniformly excited the admiration of ſurrounding nations. The Northern Confederacy, which appeared ſo tremendous to the Hon. Gentleman, was not to be much dreaded. Any warfare we might carry on with thoſe ſtates muſt be entirely maritime; we have the experience of what our fleets have done, and we have the hopes of what they may do again. The right of ſearching neutrals he defended, and contended that we poſſeſſed that right, inaſmuch as being at war, that we were juſtified in taking every means to prevent ſupplies getting into the ports of our enemy. The ſtate of the country was ſaid to be dreadful; he admitted that there was a temporary ſcarcity which no human wiſdom could foreſee or prevent; he praiſed the patience of the people under the preſſure, but truſted they would have little more occaſion to exerciſe it. He deprecated the plea of exciting diſtruſt and alarm in the minds of the people, and declared, he ſhould always oppoſe ſuch attempts wherever he might meet with them. Mr Dundas then concluded a moſt elegant and forcible ſpeech, by voting againſt the motion.

Sir Wm Young ſaid, that he would give his vote for the enquiry.

Mr Pitt ſpoke to the following effect:—Sir, I think that Gentlemen cannot be prepared to give a vote for the inquiry, unleſs they are alſo prepared to retract their own principles, and have changed their opinion on the nature of that ſtruggle, which a majority of this Houſe and of the country had approved. I hope, therefore, for the honour of the Houſe, and the honour and ſafety of the country, they will not adopt the ſentiments of thoſe whoſe advice, if followed, would have diminiſhed the reſources, impaired the ſtrength, and leſſened the ſecurity of the empire. I now proceed to the queſtion of confidence, ſo far as reſpects the new adminiſtration. It was made no objection to me, on my coming into office, that I had no perſonal claim to confidence; but it was objected to me that I came into office, in oppoſition to a ſet of men who did enjoy confidence. The arguments of Gentlemen is this, "Becauſe you are, from ſome unknown cauſe, deprived of thoſe Miniſters who had

your confidence, and becauſe they are ſucceeded by men whoſe principles are likely to prove the ſame, therefore you, who put your faith in that very ſet of principles, are to refuſe your confidence to theſe new Miniſters who maintain them." So far for the queſtion of confidence. If, however, theſe men ſo appointed be not new to the love and eſteem of the country; if it ſhould be found that they enjoyed the confidence of that Houſe; if they then ſhould be found poſſeſſed of every virtue that enſures private eſteem and public veneration; if one of them ſhould have already received peculiar marks of the confidence of that Houſe, by his appointment to the firſt ſeat in it, to its chair, by an unanimous vote, and in more Seſſions than one: "If you, Sir," (ſaid Mr Pitt, turning to the preſent Chancellor of the Exchequer), "who have received theſe marks of confidence, have quitted a ſtate of comparative dignity and repoſe, and accepted a ſituation of difficulty, this, ſurely, is ſome proof that you have accepted it from patriotic and honourable motives." I will next aſk, what man has given more proofs of attention to buſineſs, of underſtanding, and talent, and who has more perſonal and hereditary virtues, than the Noble Lord, who alſo forms another part of this adminiſtration (Lord Hawkeſbury)? I will except that man who is now almoſt a new member (Mr Fox); I admit he is an exception to almoſt every other public man whom I have ever known; but with that exception, I call upon the Gentlemen on the other ſide of the Houſe to ſtake any other man ſo fit to fill the ſtation; and I think I do no diſparagement to any man among them, if I ſay, there are none of them ſuperior to my Hon. Friend. Is it neceſſary to obſerve on the talent and legal knowledge of the Noble Lord who is to hold the Great Seal? Is the name of Lord St Vincent new, and at a period of the war, too, in which no department is ſo important as that of the navy? Is it nothing, I ſay, to have at the head of the Admiralty that Noble Lord, whoſe name is a ſhield and a bulwark? Having ſaid thus much on the general queſtion of how far his Majeſty's preſent Miniſters are entitled to confidence, may I now be permitted to ſay a few words on the ground on which my colleagues and myſelf have retired from office, the ignorance of which is the ſole myſtery attending it? To retire voluntarily from ſcenes and ſituations which muſt gratify the higheſt ambition, and might be naturally ſuppoſed the objects of their fondeſt hopes and wiſhes, does not apparently furniſh any preſumption againſt the honeſty and integrity of the motive. In my own defence I muſt, however, ſay, that my conduct for ſeventeen years paſt, in which I have been in office, furniſhes nothing on which to raiſe a ſuſpicion that I would reſign from any difficulty in my ſituation. My whole political life is evidence againſt any ſuch inſinuation; and, ſo far from a wiſh to evade difficulty or danger, I have, in the month ſince I gave in my reſignation, made myſelf reſponſible for a meaſure of the greateſt and moſt critical importance (the failing of the North Sea fleet). Here, ſurely, is a proof that I have not ſhunned difficulty of reſponſibility. I will ſay, then, that if I felt a conviction, that the meaſure to which I have already alluded (Catholic Emancipation), might be reſorted to with effect, and that I was prevented from bringing it forward in the way only in which it could have complete ſucceſs, I was perfectly right in retiring from my official ſituation. I do not think, however, that the preſent is the fitteſt moment to diſcuſs it with advantage to thoſe for whoſe benefit it is immediately intended; but if ever the queſtion ſhall be agitated, I ſhall explain myſelf on every topic. In adverting however, to this ſubject, I muſt diſclaim the phraſe Catholic Emancipation, ſo often and ſo improperly applied to it. I do not think that the extenſion of the few advantages which ſtill remain to be granted to the Catholics, in addition to the numerous and important rights and privileges conferred upon them during his Majeſty's reign, deſerves to be called Emancipation. I do think that the extenſion of theſe few remaining rights, coming after the Union, will be as innocent and ſafe as it would have been dangerous and deſtructive before the completion of that meaſure. On every principle of expediency, juſtice,

juſtice, and liberality, I think it undeniable. Mr Pitt having argued theſe points at length, and with great force and ingenuity, then proceeded to vindicate himſelf and his colleagues from the charge of incurring ſuſpicions injurious to their Sovereign, by their ſilence. Mr Pitt next adverted to the charge of having given a pledge to the Catholics, as follows:—As to promiſes, held out to the Catholics of Ireland, by a Noble Lord at the head of the Government of that country, whoſe name is not even at this day mentioned but with reverence and eſteem, I did know that he did make a communication to the Catholics of the cauſe of the change in his Majeſty's Councils, in order to prevent any miſconception that might induce and excite diſcontent in that part of the United kingdom. I alſo ſaid, that when the obſtacles which now ſtood in the way ſhould be removed, we would ſupport it; but if, in the mean time, it ſhould be preſſed to be brought forward for factious or any other improper purpoſe, that I would reſiſt it with firmneſs and reſolution. As to any other pledge, I gave none, and I am anxious to give none. I know the Catholics themſelves conceived no ſuch pledge. The Catholics might expect it, becauſe the more I conſider the meaſure, the more neceſſary do I think it as a conſequence of the Union. It was natural for them, therefore, to expect it would follow that meaſure; but, as to a pledge being given to them, I diſtinctly ſay there was none. Mr Pitt then proceeded to aſſign his reaſons on declining to enter into the general queſtion, it having been ſo ably argued by his Right Hon. Friend, and the ſeveral topics having been repeatedly diſcuſſed in former debates. On theſe points, therefore, ſaid he, I ſhall ſay nothing. On the object of the war we are ſometimes charged with having continued it for the reſtoration of Royalty in France. I certainly did ſay that Royalty was deſirable, as being the ſpecies of government beſt ſuited for that country, and affording moſt ſecurity to us; but I never did ſay that it was a *ſine qua non*, in the purſuit of which we ſhould ever loſe ſight of one opportunity of peace; ſo that the charge of changing the objects of the war reſolves itſelf into this, that we did not purſue any particular object to madneſs, and the extreme of enthuſiaſm, but combined in our view many objects together. We had three diſtinct objects in the war—Royalty as the form of government moſt deſirable in France; but in caſe that ſhould not be attainable, then the protection of the liberty and independence of Europe, connected with the ſafety and intereſts of this country; and, laſtly, if this object failed alſo, to maintain ourſelves ſafe and ſecure in the midſt of the wreck of nations, and to protect the honour, the revenues, and the Conſtitution of Great Britain. Mr Pitt next alluded to the charge of diſtreſs ariſing from the high price of proviſions in conſequence of the war, and hoped that Gentlemen would not lay out of their conſideration the various other cauſes, ſuch as the badneſs of the ſeaſons, which, as they have been frequently mentioned, we ſhall not now repeat. As to the diſpute with the Northern Powers, he had many reaſons, he ſaid, for not entering fully into this queſtion. Gentlemen had endeavoured to fix the ſubject with our conduct to other nations beſide thoſe concerned, and particularly to involve it with our diſcuſſions with America; but the fact was, it grew out of the armed Neutrality of 1780, had increaſed, and was now extended ſo as to embrace our maritime rights, and privileges, and put the deareſt intereſts of the country at iſſue. The firſt of theſe was, that free ſhips make free goods; and on this ſubject he hoped Gentlemen would anſwer the five following queſtions:—Firſt, then, he denied that free ſhips make free goods, on the ground both of the general law of nations and particular treaties. Secondly, he denied that the Northern Powers were juſtified in denying our definition of merchandiſe, contraband in war; for, he contended, that all articles applicable to the uſe of war were comprehended under that appellation. Thirdly, he maintained, that in caſe of blockade it was not neceſſary that the blockading veſſels ſhould be cloſe to the place, but only ſo near that a ſhip could not enter without running a riſk of being captured. Fourthly, he denied the right of neutral nations to carry on any

trade which they were not permitted to carry on before the war. And, Fifthly, he denied the right of neutrals to protect their merchant veſſels from viſitation, by granting eſcorts. Mr Pitt having laid down theſe five points, proceeded to argue them with great force and ingenuity, upon general principles, and ſpecific treaties. It had been ſaid, that this principle had already been given up in ſeveral treaties formed by this country; but would any man ſeriouſly aſſert, that a compromiſe of this principle, in a few particular inſtances for adequate conſideration, or upon grounds of alliance and mutual intereſt, was any thing like a general dereliction of it? There were, he ſaid, three powers to whom it had been ceded by commercial treaty—to France, for inſtance, in the treaty which ſucceeded the American war; but every man muſt ſee that it was a principle, in this caſe, which could only remain co-exiſtent with the continuance of peace, as it was pretty obvious that, if France ſhould be engaged in war, it would be moſt probably one againſt England; and it was ceded to Holland and Portugal, upon the ground of exiſting alliance, and the ſtrong ſuppoſition that if either of theſe ſhould be engaged in war, it would be on the ſide of England. But could it enter into the mind of any man, that ſuch a ceſſion would be made to any Power in the contemplation of a poſſible war with that Power? If it had been even reſiſted at the end of the American war, a moment at which the fleets of the enemy triumphed, not only in the ſeas of Europe, but in climes far remote, did it follow that it muſt be permitted now, when the fleets of England were ſo ſuperior, in order to permit the enemy to recruit that commerce and marine, by the deſtruction of which we had atchieved ſo many advantages to our own, and which it was our duty to ſecure and perpetuate? He concluded by voting againſt the motion.

Mr Fox roſe a few minutes after twelve—As I have been complimented, he began by ſaying, by the Right Hon. Gentleman who ſpoke laſt, with the appellation of being a new member, I ought, perhaps, to implore the patience and indulgence of the Houſe. Sir, the debate which has taken place has, from the very nature of it, introduced ſo great a variety of topics, that it is rather difficult to know where to begin. But the Right Hon. Gentleman has, by the latter part of his ſpeech, ſo particularly pointed at me, that I am naturally led to touch firſt upon that which did not, I muſt confeſs, appear to me to be either one of the moſt ſolid or the moſt ſplendid parts of his ſpeech. He ſays, the time will come when we may diſcuſs the neutral queſtion both as ſtateſmen and as lawyers. Now, Sir, certainly I have but little claim to the firſt of theſe characters, and none at all to the ſecond. But with reſpect to the queſtion itſelf, the Hon Gentleman, I think, ſtated, firſt the neutral principle contended for to be, that free bottoms make free goods; ſecondly, the contraband principle; and, thirdly, the denial of the right of ſearching neutral ſhips under convoy. Theſe were the three chief principles: there was alſo a fourth, which relates to blockaded ports. Upon the firſt of theſe points, which I contend to be the ſole point of the Armed Neutrality of 1780, we have heard it ſtated to be a Jacobin principle. This Jacobin principle was firſt broached by Frederick the Great, about the middle of the laſt century. That Frederick was a philoſopher I know, but I never heard he was a Jacobin. But the Right Hon. Gentleman feeling himſelf, perhaps, not quite ſo much in favour with the Church as he was, is content to call him Jacobin. Had it been otherwiſe, it might rather have been expected, as Frederick was no Jacobin, but a philoſopher, that we ſhould have heard him characteriſed as Atheiſtical. We know that one of the Univerſities, in the year 1683, condemned all the principles of liberty, for which we have ſince contended, becauſe they conſidered them as having a ſtrong and direct tendency to Atheiſm.

Mr Fox then took a particular view of our diſpute with the Maritime Powers of the North, and condemned the conduct of Mr Pitt and his colleagues.

The Right Hon Gentleman chuſes to think we have repeated opinions ſo often, that we are grown callous to their refutation. One of theſe opinions

rions related to the reſtoration of Monarchy in France. I believe, I have often heard that ſtated to be the object of the war, but we never ſtated it as the *ſine qua non*; and the Right Hon. Gentleman will not deny that there is a difference between the two terms. But if we had ſo ſtated it, we ſhould not have been much out. When Bonaparte made, in a moſt dignified and conciliatory manner, his offer to negociate, what did you ſay to him? Reſtore the Houſe of Bourbon; that is, go hang yourſelf, and then we'll tell you whether we will treat. Was this a *ſine qua non*? Bonaparte did not chuſe to adopt this mode of conduct, to drive himſelf from power, and, perhaps, loſe his life. It is ſingular; but he did not do this. I ſuppoſe he was not ſtrong enough to be magnanimous and polite. The expedition, however, to Cadiz, and other places, and the experience of two campaigns in Italy, have made you ſtrong enough to ſend to Bonaparte, to expreſs a wiſh to negociate. But is that the caſe? You may ſend an offer to Bonaparte now. He will have more true policy and real dignity than to anſwer you as you did him; though he might perhaps be juſtified, if any thing could juſtify the trifling with the happineſs of nations, in returning you ſuch an anſwer as you returned to him. But this war, it ſeems, has been a ſucceſsful one. A Right Hon. Gentleman, who has had a principal ſhare in the conduct of the war, is a curious reaſoner, and I cannot wonder that ſuch a reaſoner ſhould have produced ſuch an effect; he ſays, let us conſider that the buſineſs of England in every war is to deſtroy the commerce of the enemy; now I think our buſineſs is to conſider how we may the ſooneſt bring our enemy to peace. But then he alludes to our naval ſucceſſes. Our naval ſucceſſes I attribute chiefly to the ſkill, to the good conduct, to the undaunted valour and ſpirit of our ſailors. To what do I attribute the failure of our military? Not to want of ſkill, not to want of valour in our army; but to an adminiſtration which did not know how to direct that valour, and that ſkill. But it is ſaid, there have been failures in other wars, and the Right Hon. Gentleman has alluded to the loſs of Minorca. Whether that iſland was loſt by the miſconduct of the Miniſters, or the troops, or the Admiral, I will not ſay; but thus much I will ſay, on the part of a man for whom I feel the deepeſt gratitude, that that perſon did not refuſe, but provoked inquiry. But there were other failures—there was a failure at Rochfort, an inquiry was alſo granted. How comes it, then, that this is the only war in which no inquiry has been granted? It muſt have ariſen from this cauſe; from the increaſe of confidence, and from the giving up more than our anceſtors did to the Executive Government. The Right Hon. Gentleman had ſtated the increaſe of the national debt at one hundred and ſixty millions. He ſays, in reckoning the debt, we are not to reckon what the income tax is mortgaged to pay off. I wiſh this were the caſe in private concerns. I ſhould like it as well as any man in the Houſe. But what perſon does not feel the income tax? The country feels it as the moſt burthenſome part of the debt. The argument founded on the 20 millions of land tax is a mere play upon the words. It is like a gentleman who owes 20,000l. and ſells all or part of his eſtate to pay it off! He owes nothing afterward, it is true, but are not his means and his income narrowed? With much more truth does the Right Hon. Gentleman ſay, that what we apply to the ſinking fund muſt be deducted from the debt. But this muſt continue with a proportionate revenue. What we pay every year I ſtate at about 40 000,000l. I add to that the ſum of 10,000,000l. which we pay to the poors rate: this is the ſtate of the country, paying 50,000,000l. annually. The Right Hon. Gentleman eſtimated, rather ſanguinely as ſome thought, the land rental of the kingdom at 25,000,000l. Surely, therefore, the ſituation of a nation paying double its whole land rental deſerves the moſt ſerious conſideration.

In ſpring, the ſupplementary militia was deſtroyed to gain a diſpoſable force. They were ſent to Holland. But we gained the naval force of Holland, and if my dates be right, we acquired it before the military enterpriſe began. The latter, however, failed, under the diſagreeable, I muſt not ſay, diſgraceful circumſtances of a convention with an inferior force. But we are told, that

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it ſucceeded in a third point of diverſion—Now, the object of a diverſion is with a ſmaller force to divert the attention, and to keep in play a larger force of the enemy. You landed, however, on a neck of land, and you could not, I affirm, have landed with more chance of being baffled by an inferior force. No wonder, therefore, that the enterpriſe failed. We find that the men were ſo unacquainted with their officers, that ſeven months afterward, the Commander in Chief ſays, it would take two months more to make them fit for ſervice. But this army returned in November. It was bad weather—ſo bad that the men could not only not exerciſe, but could not get acquainted with their officers—while others were regaling with their friends at that ſeaſon, theſe men could not get acquainted with their officers till the thaw. Let us look at the other ſide of the queſtion. In ſome places France is milder than in England, but in no place is ſhe ſo much milder as to make ſo great a difference. We rejected the overture of Bonaparte, becauſe nothing but peace could keep him in his ſeat. Our refuſal, perhaps, warmed him, and kept out the cold. During theſe ſubſequent months, paſſed in ſuch nullity here, Bonaparte, from his exhauſted country, and from his alleged exhauſted reputation, formed an army, and when ſummer came he went to another froſt, and carried his army over Alpine ſnows. The cold did not prevent him from paſſing them—he could do this, though Britiſh regiments could not be ſent in ſhips to the Mediterranean. Am I to think our Ally ſo ſtupid as not to wiſh for the acceſſion of 20,000 Britiſh troops? Was this the ſtate of things formerly? Would the Duke of Marlborough and his troops have been deemed an incumbrance? Where is our reputation gone? The battle of Marengo came. Sir, I am not one of thoſe who deny that fortune has a great ſhare in the affairs of war: but, I muſt confeſs, that I never heard of a campaign in which fortune ſeemed to have leſs to do than in that. And now comes the Convention of Hohenlinden, under circumſtances which the country ought never to forget. The Emperor ſends a Miniſter to Luneville to negociate, in conjunction with Great Britain. A naval armiſtice was demanded by France, which it was right, perhaps, to refuſe. But then a ſeparate treaty was propoſed. What was your reaſon for refuſing it? Was it from a principle of faith to the Emperor? Did he aſk it? Was it not for his intereſt that we ſhould negociate at the ſame time he did? Well, Sir, after the Convention of Hohenlinden expired, the war was renewed. And here I come to a notable inſtance of the difference between eloquence and wiſdom. The Right Honourable Gentleman ſaid he would adviſe the Emperor, as a ſpectator, to continue the conteſt. Againſt the prediction, however, of that Gentleman, the Emperor found that he had riſked much by the continuance of the war, and the country, with a ſottiſh ſtupidity, refuſed, upon a principle of faith, which was not exacted, to treat. Now mark the event. The Emperor makes a ſeparate peace. All Europe was to be converted againſt France. The ſucceſs of the war has been, that nearly all Europe is againſt you, and that ſo far from maintaining our influence on the continent, the war which we had undertaken, to preſerve the balance of power, has ended in an event unexampled. A great continental peace has been concluded, including in it Germany, Spain, and Italy, and this country, ſo far from taking the lead in it, is as much out of it as any of the pettieſt Princes in Germany. This is the end of a war for eſtabliſhing reciprocal relations between the different Powers.

Mr Fox next proceeded to animadvert on the conduct of his Majeſty's Miniſters, on their repeated refuſals to treat for peace with France, and the haughty and ſcurrilous language in which they ſpoke of that truly great man now at the head of the French republic, raiſed by his wiſdom and valour. Did that great man refuſe inquiry, when his country was diſtracted at home, and menaced with the moſt formidable dangers from without? No. It was his policy to inquire into the extent of the evils by which his country was ſurrounded, in order to apply a vigour commenſurate to the extent of the miſchief, by which means he was able to ſurmount it, and ſubdue Europe to peace; and even now he was convinced

vinced that great man had a mind ſuperior to the narrow and vindictive policy which had guided the conduct of his Majeſty's Miniſters through the whole of the war, and above throwing any illiberal impediment in the way of pacification. Mr Fox then went over the remaining topics of Mr Pitt's ſpeech, to which he replied with his wonted ſpirit and ability. He concurred in the encomiums laviſhed by that Gentleman on certain members of the new adminiſtration, particularly Lord St Vincent, to whoſe profeſſional character, as well as ability in his new department, he joined in every juſt praiſe; to the integrity and talents of the new Chancellor of the Exchequer, he alſo concurred in the panegyric of his predeceſſor; and had only to expreſs his ſurpriſe, that the Right Hon. Gentleman could be induced to abandon a ſituation, which he had long filled with honour and advantage, in order to aſſume another, where, in ſucceeding to the ſame meaſures profeſſed by his predeceſſor, he was ſo likely to forfeit the popularity he had ſo juſtly acquired. But as to the Noble Lord (Hawkeſbury), he had no doubt of his having been, as the Right Hon. Member had ſtated in his panegyric, ten years in parliament, and a cloſe attendant on buſineſs. But he could not help thinking there ſeemed ſomething very advantageous to the character and feelings of the Noble Lord, deſigned in his new appointment, by placing him in that peculiar ſituation which muſt render him the director—propoſer of a peace with that very French government, with whom he had ſo often declared it utterly impoſſible to treat, as a ſet of Jacobins and regicides; and, not content with the ordinary ſpirit of conducting the war, was for cutting the matter ſhort, by marching directly to Paris. This language of the Noble Lord, as well as thoſe illiberal epithets of 'Child of Jacobiniſm and gaudy Puppet of its Principles,' too frequently uſed by others of the miniſterial members toward Bonaparte, Mr Fox reprobated, as weak and reprehenſible, and ſuggeſted not an inapt ſimile for the new adminiſtration, as no leſs deſerving the appellation of *gaudy puppets*, moved only by wires held in other hands. He next adverted to the ſubject of the union with Ireland, and aſked, what ſort of benefit were the people of England to expect from a meaſure which united them (if the language of miniſters deſerved credit) with a nation, the great maſs of whoſe inhabitants, near five millions in number, were diſaffected to the government, and could not be kept quiet without martial law, or rather by depriving them of all law? He dreaded this example, as leading to the adoption of martial law in this country, which he ſhould deprecate as the death of the Britiſh conſtitution; but, with reſpect to Ireland, he muſt be convinced the fault was not theirs originally. There was no inſtance of a whole people diſaffected toward the government under which they lived, unleſs there was ſomething peculiarly and radically bad in that government. He knew the people of Ireland characteriſtically and intimately, many of them perſonally—he always thought and ſpoke of them with ſentiments of eſteem and admiration, becauſe he never knew nor heard of any people, whether in the lower or higher orders, who, he was convinced, would be more grateful for protection, or more eaſily governed under a mild and liberal ſyſtem: and, with reſpect to the Catholics, the Right Hon. Gentleman denied that any pledge was given to them, yet he believed, it could not be denied, that promiſes was held out to them in what was, perhaps, improperly called emancipation. He concluded by ſupporting the motion.

Mr Pitt ſaid a few words in explanation.

Mr Addington intreated the indulgence of the Houſe in a few words of reply to the Hon. Member who ſpoke laſt but one. The Hon. Member had thought fit to make ſome alluſions to him and his colleagues, and to aſſert that they ſtood pledged to purſue the ſame meaſures as their predeceſſors.—But he could aſſure the Hon. Member, and the Houſe, that he was not pledged to ſupport or reject any ſet of meaſures, merely becauſe they were or were not thoſe of any ſet of men, nor did he feel himſelf bound by any principle, except that of an earneſt and honourable wiſh for the ſervice of his ſovereign, and the advantage of his country. With reſpect to the ſubject of peace with the enemy, he could aſſure the Hon. Member, his Majeſty's Miniſters were earneſtly

neſtly diſpoſed to that deſirable object, and determined to oppoſe nothing on their parts unfair and unreaſonable to impede an event ſo devoutly to be wiſhed. They had no reaſon to imagine the enemy indiſpoſed for peace, or deſirous of throwing in its way any unſurmountable obſtacles. He could, therefore, aſſure the Hon. Gentleman, that in the indulgence of a caſe ſo very congenial to his feelings, his Majeſty's Miniſters felt no diſpoſition to interpoſe any language of hatred or of an intemperate kind; but certainly they were firmly determined, however pacific their wiſhes, to liſten to no terms, derogatory to that pre-eminence of our navy, to which we owe our ſecurity and commercial proſperity.

Mr Grey replied, and at half paſt four in the morning the houſe divided,

Ayes 105; noes 291; majority 186.

Adjourned.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

April 16. *Earl St Vincent* roſe for the purpoſe, he ſaid, of moving the thanks of the Houſe to theſe noble, gallant, and diſtinguiſhed commanders, who had ſo ſignally fought, and who had ſo decidedly obtained the victory of the Daniſh fleet before Copenhagen. He would move, too, with no leſs warmth, the thanks of the Houſe to the officers, marines, and ſailors who had with ſo much courage ſuſtained the engagement, and atchieved the complete defeat of the enemy's fleet. Much as might be ſaid for the glory and honour of the Britiſh arms, he had to add that, in his opinion, no one victory, through the whole courſe of our naval ſucceſs, was in itſelf of greater importance, nor likely to be attended with more important and extenſive benefits to the Britiſh empire. He then moved the thanks of the Houſe to Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, for the victory obtained over the Daniſh fleet, on the ſecond of April laſt, which was agreed to *nem. diſſ.* The noble Earl then moved, that the thanks of the Houſe ſhould be given to Vice-Admiral Lord Nelſon; to Rear-Admiral Graves; to the Hon. Colonel Stewart, of the 49th regiment of foot; together with the officers, marines, and ſailors, ſerving on board the Britiſh fleet.

The Duke of Clarence ſaid, it might appear preſumptuous in him to riſe and add approbation to what was already mentioned. He complimented Lord Nelſon highly on his courage and intrepidity, which fortune ſeemed to back in every enterprize in which he was engaged; and acknowledged his own perſonal obligation, as a prince of the blood, to the gallant commanders, and to the whole fleet, for the accompliſhment of a victory, which, probably, in its effect, would reſtore the poſſeſſions on the continent to his family, together with the peace and ſecurity of the Britiſh empire and of Europe.

17. Their Lordſhips proceeded at a late hour of the evening to the order of the day, for the ſecond reading of the bill for empowering his Majeſty to apprehend and detain in cuſtody ſuch perſons as may be ſuſpected of conſpiring againſt his perſon or government; and the report of the ſecret committee being previouſly read,

The Earl of Moira roſe, not for the purpoſe, he ſaid, of oppoſing the bill, which ſhould receive his aſſent, if it could be proved that it was neceſſary; but to object to the want of ſufficient evidence to eſtabliſh the report, and therefore inſufficient to bear their Lordſhips out in the paſſing of a bill, which went to ſuſpend one of the moſt important privileges of Engliſhmen.

Lord Hobart admitted the meaſure to be a ſtrong one, and ſuch as neceſſity alone could juſtify; that papers were not laid before the Houſe as uſual was matter of formality, as they were transferred to the committee of the Commons, and could not, without an addreſs to his Majeſty, be got out of their hands before. Diſpatch and promptitude were now neceſſary, and he appriſed the Houſe that the bill would be propoſed to paſs through all its ſtages to-night.

Lord Holland oppoſed the bill altogether, as an infraction, wanton and cruel, on the rights of Engliſhmen, without a ſhadow of proof that there was any diſaffection in the country; Ireland was a victim of ſuch acts of the legiſlature.

Lord Grenville ſupported the bill, on the grounds of that conſtitutional protection which the legiſlature owed to the country.

The queſtion was then put and carried without a diviſion. The bill then paſſed. Adjourned.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

The following copy of a letter from Lieutenant-General Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. addreſſed to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, has been received at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Hobart; as alſo the copy of a letter from Lord Elgin, addreſſed to the Right Hon. Lord Hawkeſbury.

Camp before Alexandria, 20th April 1801.

SIR,

It is with great pleaſure that I am to inform you of the ſucceſs of a corps of Turks and Britiſh, under the command of Colonel Spencer. They were ordered from hence about ten days ago, for the purpoſe of forcing the enemy from the town and caſtle of Roſetta, which commands the navigation of the Nile. This operation has perfectly ſucceeded. We are now maſters of the weſtern branch of that river, and of courſe have opened a communication with the Delta, from which we ſhall derive all neceſſary ſupplies, as the French have ſcarcely any troops there, and none capable of making any ſerious reſiſtance.

The enemy had about eight hundred men at Roſetta when they were attacked. They made but a feeble effort to ſuſtain themſelves, and retired to the right bank of the Nile, leaving a few men killed and priſoners. They left a garriſon in the fort, againſt which our batteries opened on the 16th, and it ſurrendered on the 19th inſt. The conditions are the ſame as were granted to the caſtle of Aboukir.

I have many obligations to Colonel Spencer, for the zeal, activity, and military talents which he has diſplayed in the conduct of this important ſervice; and I beg to recommend him as a deſerving and moſt excellent officer.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. H. HUTCHINSON.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas, &c. &c.

Copy of a letter from Lord Elgin to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Conſtantinople, May 9. 1801.

MY LORD,

Mr Morier having returned from Egypt, I have the ſatisfaction of being able to lay before your Lordſhip a far more particular account of the affairs and proceedings in that country, than it has hitherto been in my power to communicate. He left the camp before Alexandria on the 22d ult.

At that time the enemy remained in their ſtrong poſition upon the heights near the eaſtern walls of Alexandria, their numbers about 6000 men. They were ſtill in anxious expectation of receiving re-inforcements, particularly that which had been announced to them as coming from Admiral Gantheaume.

The loſs of the enemy, according to the numerous reports which had been collected, certainly exceeds 5000 men, and a great proportion of officers: Four Generals are known to have been killed. Every encouragement ſeems to have been given and held out to the French army to enſure their utmoſt exertions. Among other things, they were taught to expect no quarter from the Britiſh. The priſoners agree, that in no part of this war had ſuch hard fighting or ſuch determined bravery ever been ſeen, as they have met with from our army in Egypt.

I preſume that Sir Ralph Abercomby's abſence from the camp, in conſequence of his wounds on the 21ſt of March, had created a momentary ſuſpenſion of our operations; and the irreparable loſs occaſioned by his death, muſt alſo neceſſarily have checked the proſecution of plans, in the formation and execution of which he had always borne ſo leading a part. The Captain Pacha did not arrive in time to ſee Sir Ralph Abercromby; but it appears that General Hutchinſon followed his Excellency's intention relative to the troops on board the Turkiſh fleet, by employing them againſt Roſetta, and accordingly directed Colonel Spencer, having under him a corps of about 800 Britiſh, to proceed with the Turks to that expedition. The town was evacuated without reſiſtance. Some guns were brought to bear upon the fort of St Julien, which commands the entrance of the river. The garriſon of 368 men ſurrendered on the 9th ult.

Rahmanich was ſtill in the hands of the French. They had fortified it, with a view to ſecure their communications from the upper part of the Delta, and Upper Egypt, whence they received their proviſions.

Under theſe circumſtances, General Hutchinſon has very much ſtrengthened his poſition between Aboukir and Alexandria, not only by a range of works in front, but particularly by opening the ſluices which kept in the waters in the lake on their left; and if, as is ſuppoſed, this inundation ſhall extend over the whole of the plain, to the eaſt of the Lake Mariotis, the communication between Alexandria and Rahmanich, which is the enemy's neareſt point, will be eight or nine day's journey without water.

Having taken theſe meaſures, Gen. Hutchinſon was to transfer his headquarters to Roſetta on the 23d ultimo, to which place he had already ſent forward a ſtrong detachment, amounting above 400 Britiſh, including Colonel Spencer's corps; and he was immediately to proceed from thence, with nearly an equal number of the Captain Pacha's troops, againſt Rahmanich, where the French were underſtood to have aſſembled 3000 men.

On the other hand, advices had been received ſeveral days before from the Grand Vizier, dated at Belbeis, from which it appeared, that his Highneſs, reinforced by nearly 5000 men from Djezzar Paſha, had paſſed the deſert, and had advanced, ſo far towards Cairo, without meeting with oppoſition either at Salahieh or at Belbeich. He had alſo detached a corps which has taken poſſeſſion of the town of Damietta, though the fort of L'Eſbe, is ſtill in the hands of the French.

It is not expected that his Highneſs will experience any material reſiſtance at the town of Cairo. And I find it is the determination of General Hutchinſon to afford his Highneſs ſuch aid as may be requiſite towards the attacking the fortifications which the French occupy near to the town, if it is neceſſary to reduce them by force.

General Hutchinſon has further received a favourable letter from Murad Bey, ſaying he is ready to join us when we come into his neighbourhood.

I am happy to add, that our army are in the higheſt health and ſpirits. The climate and weather had hitherto been moſt propitious. The natives had aquired the greateſt degree of confidence from the proclamation iſſued by our army, and were continuing to bring in horſes and proviſions in great plenty. Nearly 1000 of our cavalry are now well mounted there; and we have ſtill above 11,000 infantry in the field. The utmoſt degree of unanimity prevails between the Britiſh and Turkiſh troops.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) ELGIN.

Right Hon. Lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

RUSSIA.

We are happy to find, that from the pacific diſpoſition, or the political ſyſtem of the Emperor Alexander, the diſpute with the Northern nations is on the point of being put into a train of adjuſtment; and that the embargo upon the Britiſh ſhips in the different ports of Ruſſia, has been recalled as a prelude to ſo deſirable an event. Every thing of a doubtful nature at the Court of St Peterſburg ſeems to be adjuſted, excepting the Emperor's intention of adhering to the principle of his grandmother's code, that free bottoms ſhould make free goods; and we have ſtill reaſon to believe, notwithſtanding the amicable appearance of the moment, that he is as reſolutely determined to adhere to this principle as ever. It may perhaps be modified in its application, and aſſented to upon ſuch modification by Great Britain, in conſequence of the liberality of the Emperor's preſent conduct, but we have no idea that its baſis will be relinquiſhed, or even eſſentially departed from. Situated, however, as Ruſſia is at preſent, be the motive of the Emperor what it may, he could not poſſibly have acted a wiſer part. To have detained and ſequeſtrated the private property of a few Britiſh merchants, could have been but of little real ſervice to the empire in the caſe of actual hoſtilities, and he has only reſigned gratuitouſly what, from his own preſent imbecility and the ſtrength of the Britiſh fleet in the Baltic, it was obvious he muſt have reſigned by force, if he had raſhly truſted to the fate of war.

Count

Count de Woronzow, Plenipotentiary from the Emperor of Ruſſia, had a private audience of his Britannic Majeſty on the 4th of June, to deliver his credentials. To which he was introduced by the Right Hon. Lord Hawkeſbury.

FRANCE.

The negociation between Great Britain and France is carried on with more than common aſſiduity. M. Otto between the 18th and 24th June, received not leſs than three communications in the courſe of 24 hours. Bonaparte, if he be not honeſt in theſe tranſactions and proteſtations, is at leaſt politic; he has taken the cooleſt and the wiſeſt ſtep to allay the ſpirit of domeſtic irritation, and ſhould the negociations ultimately fail, which we have reaſon to believe are ſtill advancing between England and France, he will have the advantage of attributing the failure to the Britiſh miniſtry.

We cannot help remarking the alteration of tone manifeſted in ſome of the French papers. The following paſſage deſerves to be noticed, "Is the Britiſh Government," ſays the *Moniteur*, "ſincerely deſirous of putting an end to the preſent war? The preſent miniſter ſays ſo. We ſhall probably ſoon know in what eſtimation his proteſtations ought to be held. The miniſterial journals frequently repeat that every thing is in motion on the coaſt of France, in order to an expedition againſt England. It is from them that the details of theſe preparations are learnt at Paris. What object have they in view? Do they wiſh to exaſperate ſtill more two nations which have already been too long engaged in fighting? However this may be, we are bold to ſtate, in the moſt poſitive manner, that an honourable and juſt peace is the firſt concern of the French Government; war is only its ſecond."

SPAIN—PORTUGAL.

The invaſion of Portugal has at length commenced. It appears by the French Journals, that the left wing of the Spaniſh army has entered the Portugueſe territory without experiencing any effective reſiſtance; and that the Spaniards have made themſelves maſters of Olivenza and Monte Major, two frontier towns of feeble fortifications. Elvas, a town ſurrounded by works projected by the celebrated La Lippe, and about a hundred miles from Liſbon, is alſo beſieged; but it is juſtly ſuſpected, that from the unwarlike ſpirit of the people, this maſs of defenſible outworks is not likely to make any very ſtrenuous or durable oppoſition againſt a formidable attack. The entrance of the Spaniards, under the command of the Prince of Peace, is to be ſucceeded by that of the French; the firſt diviſion of whoſe army, deſtined to this enterprize, and conſiſting of 1250 men, had arrived from Perpignan, and been received in Catalonia with every demonſtration of joy. It is ſtated moreover, that M. de Pinto had reached Paris upon an extraordinary embaſſy, and that he was furniſhed with full powers either for an armiſtice or a definitive peace. The preliminary demand on the part of the French Government was, it ſeems, an embargo on all Engliſh veſſels, and that the Portugueſe ports ſhould be ſhut againſt this country. The full powers of M. de Pinto do not appear, however, to have extended quite ſo far as to aſſent to ſuch a propoſition, for he has returned to Liſbon for additional inſtructions. In the mean while the Spaniſh army is advancing towards the Portugueſe capital, and that of the French is approximating its borders, if it has not already entered upon them.

GERMANY.

The French troops are ſaid to have evacuated the enemy's territory. All the troops have returned to the left bank of the Rhine. The Imperial army lately on the Radnitz has on its part returned in Bohemia, Swabia, and and Franconia; and in general the countries ſituated between Bohemia, the Hereditary States, and the Rhine, have been reſtored to the Princes of the Empire to whom they belong. A regiment of cavalry and a demi-brigade of infantry ſtill occupy the Brifgau, until the agents of the Duke of Modena, to whom that country is to be given up, ſhall arrive to take poſſeſſion of it. As the Duke of Modena has yet no troops of his own, it has been agreed that an Auſtrian regiment, to be acknowledged by both powers, ſhall ſerve as auxiliary troops to the Duke of Modena. The fortifications of Duſſeldorff, Ehrenbreitſtein, Caſſel, and

Kehl, have been demolished, conformable to an article of the treaty of Luneville. Theſe fortreſſes are to remain in the ſame ſtate in which they were when evacuated by the French. Several commanders had evacuated the right bank of the Rhine without drawing up a ſtatement of the conditions in which they left the fortifications of thoſe places. The depot of war having required ſuch ſtatements, the Commanders at Duſſeldorff and ſeveral other points, have been obliged to paſs over to the right bank, to draw up ſtatements of the condition of the fortreſſes, and to cauſe them to be ſigned by the Syndics of the different cities.

ITALY.

All the right bank of the Adige is occupied by the French army.

Some differences alſo took place between the Pope and Ciſalpine Republic, reſpecting the boundaries on the ſide of Romagna. It has been decided that the treaty of Tolentino ſhall be the umpire upon this occaſion. Conſequently the countries which the Ciſalpine government has occupied, without forming part of the ancient territory of Romagna, muſt have been evacuated, the Pope having ceded by the treaty of Tolentino the legations only of Ferrara, Bologna, and Romagna.

In Tuſcany the Preſidis have been put into the hands of the French army. The French troops have occupied Orhitello where they found ſome excellent artillery. The part of the Iſle of Elba that belonged to the King of Naples, is occupied by the French. Porto Langone is ſufficiently ſupplied with proviſions. Porto Ferrajo has not ſhewn a diſpoſition to ſurrender. The council of ſtate is engaged in diſcuſing the proper means of removing the ſequeſtration in Belgium. This important buſineſs will be ſpeedily decided.

EGYPT.

No material change has taken place in Egypt ſince our laſt, other than that noticed in the gazette.

IRELAND.

Dublin Caſtle, May 25. The Earl of Hardwicke, who embarked at Holyhead, yeſterday evening at eight o'clock, on board his Majeſty's yacht the Dorſet, arrived in this harbour at ſix o'clok this morning. His Lordſhip, on his arrival in Dublin, was received by the Lord-mayor, aldermen, ſheriffs and commons of the city of Dublin. His Lordſhip, attended by a ſquadron of dragoons, proceeded to the caſtle, and upon his arrival there at twelve o'clock was introduced in form to his excellency the Marquis Cornwallis, who received him ſitting under the canopy of ſtate in the preſence chamber, from whence a proceſſion was made, in the uſual ſtate, to the council-chamber; the council ſitting, his Lordſhip's commiſſion was read, and the oath being adminiſtered to him, his excellency was inveſted with the collar of the moſt illuſtrious order of St Patrick, and received the ſword of ſtate from the Marquis Cornwallis. His Excellency afterwards repaired to the preſence chamber, and received the compliments of the nobility, and other perſons of diſtinction, upon his ſafe arrival, and taking upon him the government of Ireland.

LONDON.

Perhaps at no period were the Cabinets of Europe ever in a greater commotion and perplexity: all is buſtle, intrigue, and activity; new alliances forming, and new plans projecting. It is impoſſible to predict who will in the end be friends or foes, or whether war ſhall again be rekindled.

Since our laſt report, conſiderable bodies of troops have been imbarked, ſuppoſed deſtined for Egypt.

June 5. Yeſterday his Majeſty completed the ſixty-third year of his age; on which occaſion the park and Tower guns were fired, and there was every demonſtration of joy and congratulation throughout the metropolis.

9. The Gazette of Saturday contains the order of council for removing the embargo on Ruſſian and Daniſh ſhips. Our intercourſe with thoſe powers is therefore reſtored to its former footing.

22. The Gazette of Saturday, contains an order of council, of the 16th inſtant, taking off the embargo on Swediſh

Swediſh veſſels, and revoking the order for the non payment of bills drawn from that country.

The ſubſidies paid for the troops of the Empreſs of Ruſſia, King of Sweden, King of Pruſſia, Elector of Bavaria, Elector of Hanover, Duke of Brunſwick, Landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel; and the ſums paid for all Britiſh troops ſerving on the Continent of Europe, and money remitted thither for extraordinary military ſervices in the war ended in 1763, amounted to 10,626,997l. 0s. 7d.

The money expended on the Continent in the four years ending April 1797, including the Imperial Loan and the advances to the Emperor, amounted to 14,988,422l. 9s. 6d. The total expences abroad from the beginning of the war to the ſame period, including the ſubſides to Pruſſia and Sardinia, amounted to 32,810,977l. 2s. 2d.

EDINBURGH.

The Rt. Hon. Robert Dundas of Arniſton has taken his ſeat as Lord Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer. The late Lord Chief Baron, now Sir James Montgomery, took leave of the Court in the moſt reſpectful manner. This venerable and much reſpected Judge has preſided in the Exchequer about 26 years. Whilſt integrity, attention, and candour, with a profound knowledge of his profeſſional duties, diſtinguiſhed him as a Judge, benevolence of heart, and every other virtue which can adorn the human character, endeared him to ſociety as a man. From his official ſituation he has now withdrawn to enjoy in retirement, and in the evening of his days, the rich conſolations of a virtuous mind, the inſeparable companions of a good man.

The Magiſtrates and Council have reſolved, that a Monument, in honour of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, be placed on the Wall of the High Church.

On Monday laſt, the 1ſt inſtant, there was a full meeting of the Electors in the Parliament Houſe to chuſe a Repreſentative in Parliament, in room of the Right Hon. Robert Dundas of Arniſton, now Lord Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer. The Lord Chief Baron, in a very eloquent ſpeech, returned his thanks to the freeholders for their having choſen him their Repreſentative in two ſucceſſive Parliaments. His Lordſhip took a ſhort view of public affairs, and of his conduct in Parliament, during the laſt eleven years, in which he had the honour to ſit as their Repreſentative, a period as full of danger and well founded alarm, both from foreign enemies and domeſtic foes, as any period in our hiſtory. He noticed alſo the preſent ſituation of the country; he obſerved, that under the bleſſing of Providence, the vigorous exertions of our gallant ſoldiers and ſeamen, which had never been ſurpaſſed in ancient or modern times, had diſpelled the cloud which ſome months ago hung over theſe kingdoms.

The election then proceeded, when Robert Dundas, Eſq. of Melville Caſtle, was unanimouſly choſen Repreſentative for the County.

Mr Dundas, in a very elegant and appropriate ſpeech, returned his ſincere thanks to the gentlemen of the county for the great honour they had done him.

Mr Dundas gave a very elegant entertainment in the afternoon, to the electors, and ſeveral other gentlemen, at the New Aſſembly Rooms, George Street.

A Tribute to the Memory of General Sir Ralph Abercromby.

June 2. This evening at ſix o'clock, in purſuance of orders from the Right Hon. the Lord Provoſt, his Majeſty's Lord Lieutenant for the city, the battalions and corps of artillery and infantry, compoſing the Royal Edinburgh Volunteer Brigade, paraded in the centre walk leading to the Meadows in deep funeral uniform, and being formed in cloſe column, the left in front, and the muſic, drums, and fifes, in rear of each battalion and corps, the whole reverſed arms, and the column marched off in ſlow time, opening from the left in ſucceſſion, the bands, drums, and fifes, performing in a very ſolemn manner, dead marches, and other plaintive pieces of muſic, ſome of which were compoſed for the melancholy occaſion.

The column entered Burntsfield Links by the eaſtern approach; and on being halted, ſhouldered arms, and formed the beſt line that the ground would admit of. The battalions and corps

corps then formed each a ſeparate ſquare, and after facing inwards, and while the whole reſted on arms in that oſition, the *General Orders*, iſſued by his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief of his Majeſty Forces were read to each corps and battalion by its Commanding Officer.

The battalions and corps afterwards ſhouldered arms, reduced their ſquares, formed line, unmuffled drums, fixed bayonets, and marched off by ſubdiviſions from their right in quick time.

The crowd of ſpectators on this occaſion was immenſe, but every thing was conducted with a preciſion highly creditable to the brigade, and without the ſmalleſt confuſion. The ſcene was altogether ſolemn and impreſſive beyond any thing that can be conceived. The feelings of the ſpectators ſeemed in uniſon with thoſe of the brigade;—all ſeemed deeply impreſſed with the loſs which ſociety and the country have ſuſtained, and to join with cordiality in paying the tribute of reſpect, affection, and gratitude, to the memory of a man and an officer, "upon whoſe like we ſhall not ſoon look again."

GENERAL ORDERS.

Horſe Guards, 16th May 1801.

The recent events which have occurred in Egypt, have induced his Majeſty to lay his moſt gracious commands on his Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief to convey to the troops employed in that country, his Majeſty's higheſt approbation of their conduct; at the ſame time his Majeſty has deemed it expedient, that theſe his gracious ſentiments ſhould be communicated to every part of his army, not doubting that all ranks will thereby be inſpired with an honourable ſpirit of emulation, and an eager deſire of diſtinguiſhing themſelves in their country's ſervice.

Under the bleſſing of Divine Providence, his Majeſty aſcribes the ſucceſſes that have attended the exertion of his troops in Egypt, to that determined bravery which is inherent in Britons; but his Majeſty deſires it may be moſt ſolemnly, and moſt forcibly impreſſed on the conſideration of every part of the army, that it has been a ſtrict obſervance of order, diſcipline, and military ſyſtem, which has given its full energy to the native valour of the troops, and has enabled them proudly to aſſert the ſuperiority of the national military character, in ſituations uncommonly arduous, and under circumſtances of peculiar difficulty.

The illuſtrious example of their Commander cannot fail to have made an indelible impreſſion on the gallant troops, at whoſe head, crowned with victory and glory, he terminated his honourable career: And his Majeſty truſts that a due contemplation of the talents and virtues, which he uniformly diſplayed in the courſe of his valuable life, will for ever endear the memory of Sir Ralph Abercromby to the Britiſh army.

His Royal Highneſs the Commander in Chief having thus obeyed his Majeſty's commands, cannot forbear to avail himſelf of this opportunity of recapitulating the leading features of a ſeries of operations ſo honourable to the Britiſh arms.

The boldneſs of the approach to the coaſt of Aboukir, in defiance of a powerful and well directed artillery—the orderly formation upon the beach, under the heavieſt fire of grape and muſketry—the reception and repulſe of the enemy's cavalry and infantry—the ſubſequent charge of our troops, which decided the victory, and eſtabliſhed a footing on the ſhores of Egypt! are circumſtances of glory never ſurpaſſed in the military annals of the world.

The advance of the army, on the 13th of March, towards Alexandria, preſents the ſpectacle of a movement of infantry through an open country, who, being attacked upon their March, formed and repulſed the enemy; then advanced in line for three miles, engaged along their whole front, until they drove the enemy to ſeek his ſafety under the protection of his entrenched poſition. Such had been the order and regularity of the advance.

Upon the 21ſt of March, the united force of the French, in Egypt, attacked the poſition of the Britiſh army.

An attack, begun an hour before daylight, could derive no advantage over the vigilance of an army ever ready to receive it. The enemy's moſt vigorous and repeated efforts were directed againſt the right and centre. Our infantry fought in the plain, greatly inferior in the number of their artillery, and unaided by cavalry.

They relied upon their diſcipline and their courage. The deſperate attacks of a veteran cavalry, joined to thoſe of a numerous infantry, which had vainly ſtiled itſelf *invincible*, were every where repulſed: And a conflict the moſt ſevere terminated in one of the moſt glorious victories which ever adorned the annals of the Britiſh nation.

In bringing forward theſe details, the Commander in Chief does not call upon the army merely to admire, but to emulate ſuch conduct. Every ſoldier who feels for the honour of his country, while he exults in events ſo ſplendid and important in themſelves, will henceforth have freſh motives for

cheriſhing

cherishing and enforcing the practice of discipline, and by uniting in the greatest perfection, order and precision with activity and courage, will seek to uphold, and transmit undiminished to posterity, the glory and honour of the British arms.

Nor is a less useful example to be derived from the conduct of the distinguished Commander who fell in the field.

His steady observance of discipline, his ever watchful attention to the health and wants of his troops, the persevering and unconquerable spirit which marked his military career, the splendour of his actions in the field, and the heroism of his death, are worthy the imitation of all, who desire, like him, a life of honour and a death of glory.

By order of his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief.

HARRY CALVERT,
Colonel and Adjutant-General.

4. His Majesty's Birth day, who entered the 64th year of his age, was observed with the greatest demonstration of joy. The appearance of the Volunteer corps of this city was striking and affecting. Upwards of 2000 Defenders of their Country, arrived at great perfection in military discipline, afforded a *Coup d'Oeil* of the most pleasing and animating nature to every friend of the Constitution, especially at this momentous crisis of public affairs. The day being uncommonly fine, the concourse of spectators, of all ranks was immense.

In the afternoon, the Magistrates gave a grand collation to a number of Noblemen and Gentlemen, in the Parliament House, which was decorated in a very beautiful and picturesque manner, with flowers, shrubs, &c. emblematical of England, Ireland, and Scotland, United, with suitable inscriptions, appropriated to the honour of his Majesty, the Prince of Wales, and the British Army and Navy.

7. A collection took place in all the churches and chapels of this city, for the relief of the families of the brave men who have fallen in Egypt, which we understand was very liberal.

The Lord Provost has received a respite during his Majesty's pleasure, of the sentence of death passed upon *John M'Neil* and *Michael O'Neil*.

Friday afternoon, at three o'clock, *Thomas Watt*, or *Wast*, was executed at Dundee, pursuant to his sentence at the last Perth assizes.—He was accompanied to the scaffold by the Rev. Messf. M' Vicar, Innes, and Paterson, and behaved in a manner becoming his unhappy situation. A scene like this, at all times and at all places awful and impressive, must be peculiarly so in Dundee, which has not witnessed any thing of a similar nature for perhaps a century. We understand it is the determination of the Lords of Justiciary, that in future all criminals who are sentenced to die shall be executed in the places where they committed the crimes for which their life is forfeited. This is certainly a wise and salutary measure, and we have no doubt will be followed by the most beneficial consequences. It is the usual practice in England.

On Wednesday last an open boat, crossing from Limekilns to Blackness, was overset, and all the crew (seven in number, including a woman and a little girl) perished; a boat was sent from Limekilns to their assistance, but it was too late; by the time it got to the place, neither boat nor any of the bodies could be seen. Two of the men have left wives and children.

The Faculty of Advocates have unanimously elected Robert Blair, Esq; Solicitor-General for Scotland, to be Dean of Faculty, in room of the Right Hon. Robert Dundas, of Arniston, now Lord Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer.

The Greenock Port Bill, after hearing counsel, was passed in the House of Lords without alteration.

20. As a proof of the early season, hay harvest was begun in the neighbourhood of Stirling upon Saturday last, the 13th, and about Grangemouth upon Monday the 15th. Similar accounts are received from different parts of the country.

25. On Monday last, as some workmen were employed digging a well in the premisses of Mr Grindlay, tanner, Leith, the ground suddenly gave way, by which Mr Grindlay, who was superintending, and three men that were at work below, unfortunately lost their lives.

On Tuesday morning last, a carter bringing meal to market, very imprudently left two carts on the street for two hours, without any person to take charge of them, and the market being nearly

nearly over without their being brought forward, ſome women, induced by this piece of negligence, and the advance in the price of meal in that day's market, cut open the ſacks, and carried off the meal. This circumſtance excited a diſpoſition in others to commit ſimilar outrages in other places, particularly in the market, and on ſome carts carrying meal in the neighbourhood. By the exertions of the magiſtrates, this riotous diſpoſition was ſoon repreſſed, and quietneſs completely reſtored.

Proceedings of the General Aſſembly

On Thurſday 21ſt of May, the General Aſſembly of the Church of Scotland met at Edinburgh. The Right Hon. the Earl of Leven, his Majeſty's Commiſſioner, attended by ſeveral Noblemen and Gentlemen, walked in proceſſion to the High Church, where his Grace was received by the Lord Provoſt and Magiſtrates, in their Robes.—The Rev. Principal Baird, one of the Miniſters of Edinburgh, the laſt Moderator, preached an excellent diſcourſe from Romans, 1ſt chap. 5th verſe, "By whom we have received grace and apoſtleſhip, for obedience to the faith among all nations for his name."

After divine ſervice, his Grace the Commiſſioner went to the Aſſembly; when the members proceeded to chuſe a Moderator. The Rev. Dr William Ritchie, Miniſter of Kilwinning, was unanimouſly elected. His Majeſty's Commiſſion and Warrant for one thouſand pounds, to be employed in propagating the Chriſtian religion in the Highlands of Scotland, were read. After which, his Grace the Commiſſioner opened the Aſſembly with an elegant ſpeech from the throne, to which the Moderator made a ſuitable reply.

The Aſſembly unanimouſly agreed that an humble and loyal addreſs ſhould be preſented to his Majeſty on the preſent ſituation of public affairs, and appointed a Committee to prepare the ſame.

On the motion for an humble Addreſs to his Majeſty on the preſent ſituation of public affairs—Dr Baird ſaid, it had been cuſtomary for the Aſſembly, but on no occaſion was it more neceſſary to preſent themſelves at the foot of the Throne than at preſent. The Doctor propoſed that the Addreſs ſhould ſpecify the following remarkable occurrences ſince the meeting of laſt Aſſembly—The happy recovery of our gracious Sovereign from his dangerous illneſs, an event which had diffuſed univerſal joy over the whole Empire—The attempts of a few deluded people who ſtill harboured ſentiments of diſaffection, but whoſe number he believed to be very ſmall—The patience of the poor, and the liberality of the rich in the ſcarcity which had viſited the country—The great meaſure of a Legiſlative Union between Great Britain and Ireland, which had been effected ſince they laſt met—And laſtly, the ſignal ſucceſs which had attended his Majeſty's arms, particularly in the Baltic, under the command of Lord Nelſon, and in Egypt, under the late Sir Ralph Abercromby, to whoſe memory the Doctor paid a very neat and elegant eulogium, concluding with the words of his brave ſucceſſor General Hutchinſon. The motion was unanimouſly agreed to.

The Aſſembly approved of the election of Mr Alexander Stevenſon, jun. as Clerk to the Truſtees of the Widows Fund, in room of his father, who has reſigned.

Monday, the Aſſemly took up the cauſe of Mr John Niviſon, miniſter of Penpont. This gentleman had been ſerved, with a libel by the Preſbytery which laſt Aſſembly found relevant, and remitted to them to take a proof. Two witneſſes in ſupport of the libel (Janet Kirk and Agnes Ferguſon), being propoſed for examination, Mr Niviſon objected to their being received. The Aſſembly found the objections to the admiſſibility of Janet Kirk irrelevant. But recommended to the Preſbytery to receive her teſtimony *cum nota*; and remitted the cauſe to the Preſbytery, with inſtructions to reject the evidence of Agnes Ferguſon, as an inadmiſſible witneſs in this cauſe.

Several Preſbyteries preſented reports of vagrant ſchoolmaſters and teachers within their bounds, which the Aſſembly remitted to a Committee to claſs, and who are to give in their reports on Friday.

Overtures from the Synods of Argyle, Galloway, Glaſgow and Ayr, and from the Preſbytery of Caithneſs, relative to the exemption of the Clergy from the operation of the income tax, were preſented and read. The Aſſembly remitted theſe overtures to a Committee, who are to give in a report upon them.

The

The Assembly next considered a protest and complaint of Mr Thomas Mill, late minister of Ladykirk, against the Committee of Bills, for refusing to transmit a petition given in by him to the Assembly, praying to be heard against a sentence of the Synod of Merse and Tiviotdale, deposing him from the office of the ministry, on account of non-residence, &c. because the complainer was at that time unable to attend the Synod, by reason of bodily indisposition, and other causes. The petition was refused as incompetent.

27. The Committee on the overtures on the income tax gave in their report to the Assembly as follows:—"The Committee are unanimously of opinion, that it is at present inexpedient to take any further measures upon the overtures remitted to their consideration."—The Assembly having considered this report, they unanimously approve thereof.

28. The Assembly had under consideration Overtures from different Synods, &c. for enacting that no Ministerial charge shall be held along with a Professorship in a College, unless it be in the town where the University or College is seated. This being a cause of much expectation, a great number of Members were present, and the galleries were crowded with ladies and gentlemen between eight and nine in the morning. A very long and animated debate took place, when much eloquence, learning, and argument were displayed on both sides of the House. —The Assembly resolved itself into a Committee of the whole House; a motion was made and seconded, that the Committee report to the Assembly, "that the General Assembly, considering that the existing laws of Church and State make sufficient provision for ensuring the residence of the Ministers of the Church of Scotland, and their faithful discharge of the duties of the pastoral office, and having entire confidence that the Presbyteries of this Church will continue their vigilant attention to the execution of these laws, of which they are the constitutional guardians; *Dismiss* the overtures." Another motion was made and seconded, That the following overture shall be transmitted by the Assembly to the several Presbyteries of this Church for their opinion, in order to its being afterwards enacted into a standing law of this Church.

"Whereas it is of the utmost importance to the interests both of religion and learning, that the Ministers of this Church shall constantly reside in their several parishes; and in particular, that they shall not be called away from them at any stated or frequently returning intervals; and also, that Professors in the Universities of Scotland, shall, during the session of their Colleges, constantly reside in the towns or cities where their respective Universities are situated; and whereas a contrary practice is in danger of prevailing, by the union of Professorships with parochial charges, in situations in which the residence which both require cannot be given according to the true meaning and design of the laws of the Church and of the State, which enjoin such residence: It is therefore overtured, that it shall be enacted into a standing law of this Church, that in all time coming, no Minister, who shall hereafter be admitted a Professor in any of the Universities of Scotland, shall be allowed to retain his Parochial Charge, and no Professor retaining his Professorship shall be settled as Minister of any parish, unless in either case such charge or parish be either wholly or in part within the town or city where the College is situated, to which such Professorship belongs; and further, that the Presbyteries of this Church shall take the most effectual means to carry this enactment into execution, according to its true meaning and design."

The Committee agreed to the following state of a vote, *Dismiss* or *Not*; it being understood that if it carried Dismiss, the overtures shall be dismissed accordingly; and if it carried Not, the second motion shall be transmitted by the Assembly to the Presbyteries as an overture. The votes were then called, when there voted, *Dismiss* 119, *Not* 67; majority for *Dismissing*, 52.

On account of a noise in the galleries during the debate, they were ordered to be cleared between seven and eight o'clock P. M., and all the persons in them turned out, except the ladies, who were allowed to remain.

29. The Committee of the whole House on the above overtures gave in their

their report to the Aſſembly, which being read, the Aſſembly approved thereof, and diſmiſſed the ſaid overture accordingly.—From this deciſion a number of members entered a diſſent.

Saturday, 30th, ſeveral members adhered to the diſſent of Friday, diſmiſſing the overtures reſpecting Profeſſors in Univerſities holding country charges.

Upon a motion, the Aſſembly unanimouſly elected Mr Charles Dickſon, bookſeller, to be Printer to the Church, in place of his father, Mr James Dickſon, deceaſed.

The report of the truſtees of the fund for a proviſion to miniſters widows, &c. was preſented, and the thanks of the Aſſembly given from the chair to Sir Henry Moncrieffe Wellwood, for his fidelity, attention, and prudence in the management thereof.

The report of the Committee on the reports of Preſbyteries reſpecting ſchoolmaſters and vagrant teachers was given in and read; from which it appeared, that 50 Preſbyteries had given in reports, and 28 Preſbyteries have not as yet reported any progreſs to the Aſſembly. The Aſſembly enjoined ſuch Preſbyteries as have not yet obeyed the order to ſend up reports to next Aſſembly.

June 1. The Aſſembly, after going through the uſual forms, was diſſolved, and another appointed to meet on Thurſday the 20th of May 1802. On this occaſion his Grace the Commiſſioner took his *final* leave of the Aſſembly, and was accompanied to the King's Arms Tavern by all the members.

THE great progreſs of the crop during the former months has not been continued during the month of June. The weather has been in general cold and unfavourable; the eaſt wind has prevailed, with little rain. It has proved very ſimilar to the June month laſt year. Till the 18th it continued uniformly cold, from that to the end alternating, but with little rain. The hay crop is much better than laſt ſeaſon, but ſtill conſiderably under the average. The wheat has ſuffered little, and is full in the ear, affording the proſpect of harveſt early in Auguſt. The other crops are ſhort in ſtraw, but keep their colour; the late barleys are ſuffering moſt. The potatoe crop too, is in many places looking unhealthy; it is computed, that nearly double the uſual quantity of that uſeful root has been planted this ſeaſon. The gardens have ſuffered conſiderably by the colds of this month, in moſt places the crop of ſmall fruit is gone; and, the larger fruits have alſo been greatly injured. The undergrowth, however, had made ſo great progreſs in May, that it advanced notwithſtanding the cold and dry weather: the Edinburgh market has been unuſually well ſupplyed, and at reaſonable prices. On the 4th, green peaſe were 12s. per peck, potatoes 16s. per peck—10th, green peaſe 8s., potatoes 10s., ſtrawberries 3s. 6d. per pint—18th, green peaſe 3s. 6d., potatoes 6s., ſtrawberries 1s. 6d.—25th, green peaſe 2s., potatoes 4s., ſtrawberries 1s. Beſt beef and mutton 7d. and 8d., veal 6d. and 7d., lamb from 2s. to 3s. 6d. per quarter; fiſh, eſpecially ſalmon and haddocks, in plenty.

THE Engliſh report ſtates, that the dryneſs of the ſeaſon ſince our laſt has not been ſo favourable as might have been wiſhed, for ſome ſorts of crops. The potatoes, turnips, and clovers, have in many inſtances, eſpecially in the northern parts of the Iſland, ſuffered conſiderably from it. The firſt is much affected with the *curl* in ſome diſtricts. The wheats and moſt of the other crops, however, in general look promiſing.—The average price, throughout England and Wales, in the week ending June 20, Wheat, 129s. 11d.—Barley, 72s. 9d.—Oats, 38s. per quarter. Much of the hay in the ſouthern counties has been already made, and got in, in the moſt excellent condition; but the graſs not upon the whole, turned out ſo good as was ſuppoſed.

Commercial Report.

The importations from *Portugal* have, in conſequence of the ſituation of that country, been unuſually great; in the firſt week of June, 2000 pipes and hogſheads of wine, 10,000 bales of cotton, 5000 cheſts and boxes of oranges, with 3000 hides, were imported from Liſbon and Oporto.

The quantity of *tea* brought from China, by the fleet lately arrived, conſiſted of 2,208,177 lbs. of bohea—7,577,691 lbs. of congou—647,282 lbs. of campoi—51,799 lbs. of ſouchong—

160,390lbs. of finglo—1,362,107lbs. of twankay—428,130lbs. of hyſon ſkin, and 143,079lbs. of hyſon—in all, 12,680,145 lbs.-----There were alſo 105,700 pieces of brown, and 59,300 pieces of white, *Nankeen*, and 107,167 lbs. of *raw ſilk*, with ſeveral parcels of goods, the particulars of which are not yet known.

The price of fir timber, in conſequence of the embargo being taken off in the ports of Ruſſia, has already experienced a great fall, and it may be expected to be ſtill cheaper in a ſhort time. Hemp and tallow have fallen very conſiderably.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

May 20. Rev. Mr Edmond M'Queen, miniſter of Barra, to Miſs Iſabella M'Lean, daughter of Charles M'Lean of Scour.

At London, Lord Louvaine, to Miſs Louiſa Wortley.

At Strathbane, Charles Stewart, Eſq; of Ardſheal, to Miſs Sinclair of Strathbane.

28. At London, Captain Drummond, of the Royal Navy, to Lady Charlotte Menzies, eldeſt daughter of his Grace the Duke of Athol.

June 1. Thomas Brown, Eſq; younger of Arnot, to Miſs Renny, daughter of Robert Renny, Eſq; of Borrowfield.

— Mr John Crawford, writer in Paiſley, to Miſs Margaret Richmond, daughter of Mr Richmond, Leith Walk.

— At Ardinconnel, Mr George Yuille, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Matilda Buchannan, daughter of Mr Buchanan of Ardinconnel.

3. Mr William Trotter, merchant, to Miſs St Clair Stuart Knox, daughter of the late Dr Knox, phyſician in London.

5. At Edinburgh, Mr Archibald Torry, merchant, to Miſs E. Moir, daughter of John Moir, Eſq; W. S.

8. At Gadgirth, Lieutenant Colonel J. Burnett, late of the Eaſt India Company's ſervice, to Miſs Margaret Keele, daughter of John Keele of Gadgirth, Eſq.

— At Glaſgow, Mr Alexander Lamond, merchant, to Miſs Elizabeth Allan, daughter of the late Mr Robert Allan, merchant.

9. At Edinburgh, Robert Fletcher, Eſq; to Miſs Margaret Graham, daughter of the late William Graham, of Gartmore.

20. Sir Alexander Kinloch, of Gilmerton, Bart. to Miſs Iſabella Stowe, daughter of the late John Stowe, Eſq; of Newton, Lincolnſhire.

22. Mr Thomas Shanks, merchant in Glaſgow, to Miſs Helen Buchanan, daughter of the deceaſed Mr Walter Buchanan, Anderſton.

— At Edinburgh, Captain John Bruce, of the late 79th regiment, to Miſs Hannah Howard Young, daughter of the late Rev. Mr Robert Young, miniſter of Leſlie.

23. At Scotſtoun, James Denniſtoun, Eſq; younger of Colgrain, to Miſs Mary Ramſay Oſwald, daughter of George Oſwald of Auchincruive Eſq.

BIRTHS.

May 21. The Queen of Sweden, a princeſs.

30. Mrs Walker Queen Street, a ſon.

June 2. Counteſs of Lucan, a ſon.

6. Marchioneſs of Bute, a daughter.

8. Mrs Leſlie of Findraſſie, a daughter.

9. Mrs Roſe Innes of Netherdale, a ſon.

— Mrs M'Leod of Colbecks, a daughter.

17. Counteſs of Sutherland, a ſon.

26. Mrs Chriſtie of Durie, a ſon.

DEATHS.

At Midnapore, in the Eaſt Indies, Capt. Robert Carruthers, of the 14th regiment of Bengal native infantry.

In Egypt, of his wounds, received on the 21ſt of March, Lieutenant John M'Pherſon, of the 2d battalion, Royals. Lieutenant Alexander Donaldſon, of the 42d regiment of foot.

Lately, at Kirkcubin, the Rev. Dr Fraſer.

May 15. At Falkirk, Mr John Bell, merchant.

24. At Dundee, Captain A. Bower, of the 93d regiment of foot.

26. On his way to Glaſgow, the Rev. James Punton, miniſter of the Antiburgher congregation at Hamilton.

— At Dundee, Mr John Grant, ſurgeon.

— At Glaſgow, the Rev. Dr Michael M'Culloch, miniſter of Bothwell.

29. At Kilmarnock, William Glen, of Aſloſs, Eſq.

— At Kilmarnock, Mr Hugh Muir, merchant.

30. At Millheugh, John Miller, Eſq; Advocate, profeſſor of law in the univerſity of Glaſgow.

June 1. At the manſe of Tarves, the Rev. Alexander Knolls, miniſter there.

4. At Dalkeith, Mr John Dick, tobacconiſt. He was Adjutant to the Dalkeith volunteers, and while on duty with the corps, was ſuddenly taken ill, and expired in a few moments.

6. Mr George Robinſon, many years an eminent bookſeller in London.

8. At Aberdeen, G. Strachan Keith, Eſq.

9. Walter Sloan Lauric, of Redcaſtle, Eſq.

10. Lieutenant General Charles Euſtace, Colonel

Colonel of the 2d battalion of the 68th regiment of foot.

— At Kilbarchan, the Rev. Stephen Rowan, minister of Largs.

12. At Carnsalloch, Johnston Hannay of Torrs, Esq.

13. At London, Brigadier Gen. Arnold.

14. At Whitehaugh, near Paisley, Mr James Gerard, merchant.

— At Lochwinnoch manse, the Rev. Mr James Steven, minister of that parish.

15. At Duddingstonn, the Hon. Captain Patrick Napier, of the Royal Navy.

17. At Edinburgh, Dr Joseph Grant, eldest son of the late James Grant of Carron, Esq.

18. At Keltie, John Drummond of Keltie, Esq.

19. At Edinburgh, the Hon. John Campbell of Stonefield, one of the Senators of the College of Justice. Lord Stonefield sat as one of the Judges of the Court of Session exactly *thirty nine* years, having been appointed to the Bench on 16th June 1762. He succeeded Lord Tinwald, who was named one of the Judges in 1744, on the decease of Lord Royston, the latter having been appointed so far back as the 1710. These three Judges, therefore, sat on the Beech in succession to each other for upwards of *ninety* years. Lord Stonefield was for some time one of the Lords of Justiciary, but he resigned that situation a considerable time ago.

PREFERMENTS.

Robert Dundas, Esq. to be Chief Baron of his Majesty's Court Exchequer in Scotland.

Charles Hope, Esq; to be his Majesty's Advocate in Scotland.

Mr Archibald Burns, to be Commissary of the Commissariot of Hamilton and Campsey.

Rev. Dr William Ritchie, minister of Kilwinning, Moderator of the General Assembly.

David Scott, Esq; of Dunninald, to be Rector of the King's College, Aberdeen.

University of Glasgow, conferred the degree of D. D. on the Rev. Alexander Rankin, one of the ministers of Glasgow.

Gen. Sir Charles Grey, K. B. the dignity of Baron Grey, of the united kingdom.

His Grace the Duke of Roxburgh, to be a Knight of the Bath.

Rear Admiral T. Graves, Maj. Gen. Hon. John Hely Huthinson, Lieut. Gen. T. Trigge, and Rear Admiral J. T. Duckworth, to be Knights of the Bath.

Lord Alvanley, to be Chief Justice of the Common Pleas.

Sir William Grant, Knight, to be Keeper of the Rolls.

Lord St Helens, to be Ambassador to the Court of Petersburgh.

Hon. Arthur Paget, to be Envoy to the Court of Vienna.

William Drummond, Esq; to be Envoy to his Sicilian Majesty.

Charles Edwards Beresford, Esq; to be Secretary to Commissioners for Stamp Duties.

Lieut. Gen. David Dundas, to be Governor of Fort George and Fort Augustus.

Andrew Brown, D. D. to be Professor of Rhetoric in the University of Edinburgh.

Robert Blair, Esq; Solicitor General, to be Dean of the Faculty of Advocates.

SEQUESTRATIONS.

April 28. William and James Purcell, merchants in Glasgow.

May 5. Wilson and Duffin, vinegar manufacturers, Leith Walk.

8. George Symon, merchant in Buckie.

— George Willis, manufacturer in Largo.

14. Mustard and Watt, merchants in Cupar Angus.

23. John Marquis, shipbuilder in Dysart.

27. Ireland, Calvert and Co., merchants in Lancaster.

29. James Ferguson, merchant in Perth.

June 3. Robert M'Morran, senior & Co. wool manufacturers at Garchen, parish of Killearn.

— George Maxwell, merchant in Balfron.

16. Robertson & Barry, merchants in Leith.

17. John Alexander, cattle-dealer in Pathhead of Howford.

23. Graham & Rutherford, merchants in Kirkcaldy.

Haddington, June 26.

Best Wheat, 64s. Barley, 53s. Oats, 40s. Pease, 42s. Beans, 39s. per boll.

Edinburgh, June 30. Oat-meal, 2s. 6d. Bear-meal, 1s. 10d. Pease-meal, 1s. 8d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

	June 8.	*June* 22.
Bank Stock	168½	168¼
3 per cent. red.	60¼	60½
3 per cent. conf.	60½	61
4 per cent. anns	78⅞	79
India Stock	200½	202
Eng. Lot. Tic.	——	15l. 12s.
Irish Lot. Tic.	——	8l. 8s.